The British Empire

At Home and Abroad

SYDNEY COWELL.

AUSTRALIAN CONTINGENT LEAVING SYDNEY FOR SOUTH AFRICA.

AUSTRALIAN CONTINGENT LEAVING SYDNEY

One of the most significant results of the Boer War was the enthusiastic display of loyalty it drew from the Colonies. India, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand all sent valuable assistance to the army in the shape of men and horses, and when the real magnitude of the struggle became apparent provided further contingents. The illustration shows a mounted force passing through the streets of Sydney on their way to the ship that is to convey them to South Africa.

The British Empire
At Home and Abroad

An Account of its Origin, Progress, and Present Position
With full Descriptions of
Canada, Australasia, South Africa, India, and
Other Colonies and Dependencies

BY

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AUTHOR OF "HISTORY OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE" "OUTLINES OF THE WORLD'S HISTORY", ETC.

WITH MANY ILLUSTRATIONS AND MAPS

NEW EDITION
Greatly Enlarged and brought down to the Beginning of
the Twentieth Century

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CONTENTS.

VOL. V.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page
Colonial Loyalty: Australian Contingent leaving Sydney	*Frontis.*
Meeting of French and Rhodes at Kimberley	25
Commandant Cronje Surrenders to Lord Roberts	39
Lord Roberts and Other British Generals	47
The Relief of Ladysmith	65
The Naval Guns on Mount Alice	71
Ladysmith Celebrations in London: Scene at the Mansion House	85
The Surrender of Kroonstad: The March past Lord Roberts	115
The City Imperial Volunteers in Action	138
Sir Redvers Buller and Other British Generals	143
Canadians Fording a River	168
Field-Marshal Sir Garnet Joseph Wolseley	173
Queen Victoria	181
Sir Wilfrid Laurier	255
Amusements on Board an Emigrant Ship	264
A Lumber Raft being Towed down the St. Lawrence	271
A Tobogganing-Slope in Canada	317
The Arrival of the Annual Ship at Fort York, Hudson Bay	356
Map of Dominion of Canada	236

BOOK V.—(*Continued.*)—BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE, ASIA, AND AFRICA, IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER XV.—The War in South Africa (*Continued*).

Lords Roberts and Kitchener in the field—The new Colonial body-guard—Activity of General French around Colesberg—Brabant occupies Dordrecht. Rendsburg and Colesberg occupied by British—Gatacre occupies Stormberg. The advance of Lord Roberts—Positions of Lord Methuen and Cronje—Lord Roberts at Modder River—Arrival of General French—Changes in the commands—State of affairs at Kimberley—Casualties during siege—General aspect of affairs in South Africa on February 10th—The sudden, startling change—Invasion of Free State on west—Details of French's great march to Kimberley—Kimberley relieved—Jacobsdal occupied—Lord Roberts' proclamation—Position of Cronje—The battle of Paardeberg—On "Majuba Day" (February 27th) Cronje surrenders. Advance towards Bloemfontein—Battle of Driefontein—Bloemfontein surrounded—The town capitulates (March 13th)—Grand entry of British forces—Steyn flees to Kroonstad—Lord Roberts' remarkable army-order. Continued siege of Ladysmith—The great Boer assault (January

333268

Page

6th)—Arrival of Dundonald's advance-guard—Scene of rejoicing—Condition of garrison—Arrival of General Buller and army—Sir George White's tributes of praise. Buller's operations for relief of Ladysmith—The move to Springfield—The Tugela crossed—The failure at Spion Kop. The assault on Vaal Krantz—Another failure—Army returns to Chieveley. Pieter's Hill won—Boers fairly outflanked—The whole cost of relieving Ladysmith. The rebellion in the north-west of Cape Colony, - - - - - - - - 1

CHAPTER XVI.—THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA (*Continued*).

Lord Methuen's operations—Disaster to Royal Irish Rifles near Reddersburg—The Sanna's Post (or Koorn Spruit) reverse—Rundle occupies Senekal (May 27th)—Lindley and Heilbron taken—Disaster to Imperial Yeomanry near Lindley—Reverse of Derbyshire Militia at Rhenoster River—Lord Roberts' advance from Bloemfontein—Kroonstad occupied—Orange State proclaimed as "Orange River Colony"—The advance to Johannesburg—Occupation of Pretoria (June 5th, 1900). Siege of Mafeking from January 25th until relief—Baden-Powell's defence—Colonel Plumer's efforts to relieve Mafeking—The march from Beira to Mafeking—Colonel Mahon's march from the south—Relief of Mafeking (May 17th)—British enter Heidelberg—Delarey captures Lincolnshires at Nitral's Nek—Death of General Piet Joubert (March, 1900)—Buller invades the Transvaal—Buller at Pretoria. Capture of General Prinsloo and large Boer force—De Wet's operations. The Pretoria plot against Lord Roberts—The occupation of Lydenburg—Occupation of Komati Poort—Annexation of Transvaal proclaimed (October 25th, 1900)—Death of Prince Christian Victor—Death of Colonel Le Gallais in action—British disaster at Dewetsdorp—Lord Roberts surrenders command to Lord Kitchener (December 1st)—Returns to England as commander-in-chief—General Election in British Isles—Strong majority for Lord Salisbury. Lord Kitchener's new tactics. Honours conferred on Lord Roberts—Death of Queen Victoria (January 22nd, 1901). Description of Transvaal and Orange River Colony—Swaziland becomes a British "protectorate". Latest events of nineteenth century in other parts of Africa—Southern Rhodesia—British East Africa—Uganda—Nigeria—Gold Coast Colony—The Ashanti campaign of 1900—Events in Sierra Leone, - - - - - 92

BOOK VI.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER I.—HISTORY OF CANADA (1803–1841).

Primitive state of Upper Canada—Political discontent in both provinces—Despotic proceedings of the Executive—Signs of social progress—Constitutional struggles continue—Reforms recommended—Robert Gourlay expelled from the country—The "Family Compact"—Some advances towards freedom—Vigorous efforts of William Lyon Mackenzie and Robert Baldwin—Growing disaffection in Lower Canada—The "Papineau Faction"—The Ninety-two Resolutions—Seditious proceedings—Policy of the Home Government—Rebellion breaks out, but is suppressed—The insurrection in Upper Canada—Governorship of Sir Francis Head—Ignominious defeat of the rebels, and flight of Mackenzie—Raids from the United States—Results of the rebellion—Ability of Sir John Colborne—Lord Durham sent to Canada—Charles Buller and Edward Gibbon Wakefield—Treatment of the rebels—Lord Durham censured—His famous Report—Its influence on the ministry—Lord John Russell's despatch—Canadian Union Act passed—Its main provisions, - - - - 202

CHAPTER II.—HISTORY OF CANADA (1841 TO THE PRESENT TIME).

Administrations of Lords Sydenham and Metcalfe—Earl of Elgin Governor-General—Concessions to the colonists—Irish immigrants—Opposition to the Rebellion Losses Bill—Rioting in Montreal—Lord Elgin's firmness—A new era opens to Canada—Expansion of trade—Continued reforms—Reciprocity Treaty with the United States—Provision by the colonists

Page

for self-defence—Sketch of Sir John Alexander Macdonald—Ottawa becomes the seat of government—Codification of the statute law—Proposed federation of North American states—An historic conference—The Dominion of Canada established—Its constitution—Local government in each province—Material progress—Growth of population—Railways and shipping—Relations with the United States—The Reciprocity Treaty not renewed—Fenian troubles—The fisheries question—Popularity of Lord Dufferin—Education and temperance—Marquis of Lorne Governor-General—Canadian Pacific Railway—The fisheries question again raised—Improved ocean service—Population—Death of Sir John Thompson—Great Intercolonial Conference, - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 225

CHAPTER III.—GEOGRAPHY, NATURAL PRODUCTS, CLIMATE, PEOPLE.

Boundaries and extent of the Dominion—Physical features—Lakes and rivers—Mineral wealth—Wild animals and birds—Vegetable products—Timber—Former mistaken views regarding the climate—Now proved to be healthy and invigorating—The long summer, and "Indian summer" in autumn—Population—Nationalities—Immigration—Indians and Eskimo, - 255

CHAPTER IV.—INDUSTRY, COMMERCE, COMMUNICATIONS.

Agriculture—Stock-breeding—Cheese-farming—Experimental Farms—Success of Canadian farmers at the Chicago Exhibition—Trade in timber—Lumbermen—Value of the fisheries—The fur trade—The trapper—Manufactures—Commerce—Exports and Imports—Shipping—Coinage and banking—Communication—Railways—Along the Intercolonial Railway—Grand Trunk Railway—Canadian Pacific Railway—Waterways—Welland Canal—Ottawa and Rideau Canals—Postal Communication—Lines of ocean steamships, - - - - 265

CHAPTER V.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, EDUCATION, FINANCE, CROWN-LANDS, JUSTICE AND CRIME, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART, SOCIAL CONDITIONS, PUBLIC DEFENCE.

System of local self-government—Religious denominations—Public instruction in the Dominion—Higher education in the various provinces—Work of Dr. Ryerson—Colleges—Elementary education in Quebec—in Ontario—in Nova Scotia—in New Brunswick—in Prince Edward Island—in Manitoba—in British Columbia—in the North-West Territories—Satisfactory state of the elementary schools—Financial affairs of the Dominion—Protective duties—Management of the public lands—Administration of justice—Social state of the people—Their material prosperity—Character of the youth—Amusements—Literature—Judge Haliburton and other writers—Eminent names in science—Dawson and Romanes—Scientific societies—Painting and music—National defence—Militia force—North-West Mounted Police—Canadian contingents in the Boer war, - - - - - - - - 285

CHAPTER VI.—THE PROVINCES: QUEBEC.

Boundaries, area, and population—The Côte de Beaupré—Its primitive French *habitans*—Scenery on the St. Lawrence below Quebec—The river Saguenay—Anticosti and the Magdalen Islands—The St. Lawrence above Quebec—River St. Maurice—Shawenegan Falls—Falls of Montmorency—Scenery of the country. Quebec city—Great fires of 1845 and 1865—Its picturesque appearance—Streets and buildings—Churches—Suburbs—Trade. Trois Rivières, Hull, and Sherbrooke. Montreal city—Fire of 1852—The Gavazzi and Orange Riots—Favourable commercial position of the city—Its site and surroundings—Inhabitants—Churches and public buildings—The Winter Carnival—Summer resort of Lachine. Products, climate, divisions, and administration of the province, - - - 308

CHAPTER VII.—ONTARIO, MANITOBA, KEEWATIN.

Boundaries, area, population, and physical features of ONTARIO—Niagara River and Falls—The Thousand Islands—Brockville—Ottawa River—The lumber industry—Lake Ontario—Number of thriving towns—Georgian Bay—The Muskoka lakes—Hunting and fishing—

Page

Manitoulin islands—District of the Upper Lakes—Lake Superior—Ottawa city—Toronto—Hamilton—London—Kingston—Brantford—Guelph—Galt—St. Thomas—Windsor—General progress of the province. Boundaries, area, and population of MANITOBA—Its early history—Lord Selkirk's Highland colony—Its difficulties and sufferings—Becomes finally established—Policy of the Hudson Bay Company—Progress of the Province—The Red River Rebellion—Expedition under Colonel Wolseley—Natural features of the country—Climate—Agriculture—Winnipeg city—Brandon—Portage-la-Prairie—Trade returns. District of KEEWATIN—Extent and Population—The Nelson and Churchill rivers—Arrival at York Factory of the annual ship from England, - - - - - - - - 327

CHAPTER VIII.—NEW BRUNSWICK, NOVA SCOTIA, CAPE BRETON ISLAND, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Boundaries, area, and population of NEW BRUNSWICK—Its early misgovernment—Disastrous conflagrations—Reform contests—Financial depression and riots—Responsible government established—Physical features and scenery of the province—Grand Falls of St. John—Fisheries—Climate—Agriculture—Trade—St. John's city—Fredericton—The Chignecto Ship-railway. Boundaries, area, and population of NOVA SCOTIA—Struggles for constitutional government—Joseph Howe—Distinguished natives—Physical geography—Apple culture—Yarmouth city—The Tusket lakes—Cape Sable—Lunenburg—Cape Canso—Antigonish, New Glasgow, Pictou, and Windsor towns—Halifax—Its Fortifications—Interior of the province—Climate—Agriculture and timber trade—Fisheries—Mining-trade and shipping—Revenue—Administration. CAPE BRETON ISLAND—Louisbourg—Bras d'Or Lake—Sydney towns. Sable Island, the "ocean graveyard"—Story of its plagues. Boundaries, area, and population of PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND—Lord Selkirk's colony—Tyranny of Governor Smith—Difficulties with the land question—Later progress of the province—Its geographical features—Agriculture and fisheries—Game birds—Manufactures—Revenue—Administration—Charlottetown—Summerside—Georgetown, - - - 357

CHAPTER IX.—NORTH-WESTERN TERRITORIES, BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Early explorations in the vast North-West—Franklin, Back, and Richardson—Expedition of Sir John Rae in 1846. Area and population of the NORTH-WESTERN TERRITORIES—Rebellion of 1885 under Riel—Its suppression by Canadian troops—The four districts between Manitoba and the Rocky Mountains: District of Assiniboia. District of Saskatchewan. District of Alberta—Its ranches—Timber and mineral resources—Climate—Calgary city—Mineral springs of Banff—District of Athabasca. Boundaries, area, and population of BRITISH COLUMBIA—Early voyages of discovery—Difficulties with the Spaniards—Vancouver Island—Physical features of the mainland—Its scenery—Climate—Fauna—Mineral wealth, timber, and fisheries—Agriculture—Vancouver city—Its destruction and speedy restoration—New Westminster. Area and population of Vancouver Island—Its fine climate and scenery—Fruit culture—The seal trade—Mineral resources—Victoria city and Esquimault—Trade. Smaller islands on the coast, - - - - - - - - 384

CHAPTER X.—NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR.

Extent and population of NEWFOUNDLAND—Her "historic misfortunes"—Geographical features of the coast—Interior of the island—Rivers and lakes—Products—Fauna—Minerals—Climate—The cod, seal, and other fisheries—Recent development of agriculture—Mining—Commercial statistics—St. John's city—Its disastrous fires—Riot of 1860—Industries—Harbour Grace, &c.—The Newfoundland dog—Administration of the island—Education—The portion of LABRADOR politically connected with Newfoundland, - - - - 403

OUR EMPIRE AT HOME AND ABROAD.

BOOK V.—*Continued.*

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE, ASIA, AND AFRICA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER XV.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA.—*Continued.*

Lords Roberts and Kitchener in the field—The new Colonial body-guard—Colonial Division under Brabant—His character and antecedents—Activity of General French around Colesberg—Operations in February—Australasians in battle—Brabant's brilliant work—He occupies Dordrecht. Successes in the west—Rendsburg and Colesberg occupied by British—Boers in east withdraw to Free State—Gatacre occupies Stormberg—Gallant deeds at Bethulie Bridge—Brabant clears the east of invaders—General surrender of rebels—Brabant, Clements, and Gatacre invade Free State—Towns occupied—Lord Roberts' proclamation read—Dashing exploit at Springfontein—Boers escape to north-east—Seizure of enemy's papers. The advance of Lord Roberts—Positions of Lord Methuen and Cronje—Lord Roberts at Modder River—Secresy of his movement—Arrival of General French—Changes in the commands—State of affairs at Kimberley—Patience of besieged—Eulogy of Col. Kekewich by Lord Roberts—Kekewich praises garrison and townsfolk—Casualties during siege—Severe bombardment early in February—General aspect of affairs in South Africa on Feb. 10th—The sudden, startling, change—Invasion of Free State on west—Details of French's great march to Kimberley—His splendid force—The grand cavalry-charge near the town—Kimberley relieved—Causes of success—Jacobsdal occupied—Lord Roberts' proclamation—Position of Cronje—His character, person, and antecedents—His flight and pursuit—Caught, surrounded, and attacked—Desperate resistance made—The battle of Paardeberg—Highlanders in action—Splendid courage of Canadians—Effect of British artillery—Cronje's hopeless position—Attempts to relieve him defeated—Renewed bombardment of his laager—Daring attack by Canadians—On "Majuba Day" (Feb. 27th) Cronje surrenders—The scene at head-quarters—Frightful condition of Boer laager—Demeanour of the prisoners—The officers captured—Guns taken. Advance towards Bloemfontein—Boers reinforced from Natal—Krüger and Steyn in the field—Battle of Driefontein—Enemy flee during night—Bloemfontein surrounded—The town capitulates (March 13th)—Grand entry of British forces—Steyn flees to Kroonstad—Lord Roberts' remarkable army-order. Continued siege of Ladysmith—The great Boer assault (Jan. 6th)—British and Boer lines described—Details of the battle—Charge of the Devons—

Thanksgiving service for victory—Message from the Queen—Disappointments in town as to relief—Buller's guns heard—Good tidings at last—His infantry in sight—Arrival of Dundonald's advance-guard—Scene of rejoicing—Condition of garrison—Arrival of Gen. Buller and army—Sir Geo. White's tributes of praise. Buller's operations for relief of Ladysmith—His position and that of Boers—The move to Springfield—The Tugela crossed—Six days' operations—The failure at Spion Kop—Serious losses. Buller's third attempt—The assault on Vaal Krantz—Another failure—Army returns to Chieveley. Buller's new plan—Description of scene of action—A fortnight's fighting—Desperate courage of Inniskillings—Pieter's Hill won—Boers fairly outflanked—Eulogy of Buller and his troops—The whole cost of relieving Ladysmith. The rebellion in the north-west of Cape Colony—Scene of action—British troops engaged with rebels—Lord Kitchener arrives—The courageous post-mistress—Good work of New Zealanders—Arrival of Canadians—Lord Kitchener occupies Prieska—Importance of the rebellion—Operations of Sir Charles Parsons—Arduous work of Canadians and Australasians—New outbreak in Griqualand West—Sir Charles Warren takes the field—Excellent service by Canadian guns—Fierce attack on Warren's force—Dangerous position of British—Rebels repulsed—Victory of Col. Adye at Kheis—General submission of rebels in June.

The new Commander-in-chief and his able colleague, Lord Kitchener, arrived at Cape Town on January 10th, 1900, and were for some time engaged in organizing the great force at their disposal for fresh efforts against the enemy. Lord Roberts, becoming aware that a sore feeling existed among the loyal part of the colonists from a lack of due recognition of their good-will and of their power to aid the Empire in the struggle against the Boers, promptly displayed his possession of admirable tact. A force of colonials was chosen as his body-guard, and a colonial division was formed under the command of Colonel Brabant, C.M.G., a local officer of great experience and distinction, as brigadier-general. This fine old warrior, born in 1836, had passed most of his active life in South Africa, having joined the Cape Mounted Rifles in 1856, and entered the Cape Parliament as member for East London in 1873. Notable alike as a soldier and a politician, Brabant held the posts of Field Commandant of Colonial Forces and Colonel of the Cape Yeomanry, and, after repeated re-elections to the Colonial Legislature, he became, in 1897, President of the South African League, the new organization of British loyalists in South Africa. The troops under his immediate command, Brabant's Horse, were men worthy of the greatest of colonial leaders—models of activity, muscle, and hardihood; vigilant, firm, ever at their best when the tide of battle for the moment turned against them. The man whom they followed had hair as white as snow, crowning a keen, sharp-featured face,

full of life and fire, with pale blue eyes steady and true, and, with his spare wiry figure six feet in height, simple close-fitting khaki jacket, corduroy pants, and bare brown hands, he presented the figure of a fighting soldier from the crown of his soft slouch hat to the glittering spurs at his heels. Brabant's experience of warfare included service against Sandile and his Gaika followers in the days of Sir George Grey as Governor, and in the Basuto rising. He then became a breeder of sheep and cattle, and resumed political life, until the contest between Briton and Boer summoned him back to the field of war. The ranks of his command were instantly filled by the best Britons in Cape Colony, in whose hearts Lord Roberts' happy recognition of colonial merit had stirred a thrill of pride. His eldest son, we may note, Lieutenant Arthur Brabant, fell dead at Elandslaagte, heading his men of the Imperial Light Horse, and two younger sons of the man who was never beaten by the Boers were serving in colonial contingents. Among the other officers commanding, in addition to Gatacre and French, in the operations now to be described, which ended in the invasion of the Orange Free State from the south, was Major-general Clements, D.S.O., colonel of the 2nd South Wales Borderers, who entered the army in 1874 and won medals and clasps in the Kaffir and Zulu Wars and the Burmah Campaign.

In January, 1900, we find General French still active in his endeavours to encompass the enemy at Colesberg. On the 19th, the Household Cavalry, Carabineers, and New Zealanders, with four guns, advanced to the north-east, and the Rimington Scouts moved two miles nearer to Norval's Pont, the new positions being, in each case, occupied without fighting. The Boers round the town were persistently shelled from a lyddite howitzer, and on Jan. 20th a cable tram to the top of Coles Kop was in working order, conveying ammunition, stores, and water to the British gunners on the hill. Four days later, French in person made a reconnaissance with a strong force of all arms on his extreme left flank, threatening the enemy's communications with the Orange River by approaching their position at Reitfontein, nine miles beyond Colesberg on the Wagon Bridge road. The Boers were shelled by howitzers and field guns, their return-fire of guns and rifles causing a British loss of one officer and eight men wounded, and one man killed in the 2nd Wiltshires. The Wiltshires, in

action for the first time in the history of the battalion, behaved with great coolness under a heavy fire, to which they delivered a vigorous reply. In the first days of February, the enemy at Colesberg were strongly reinforced, and some smart fighting took place on February 8th and the following day in consequence of their efforts to outflank our positions. In these little engagements, Australians and Tasmanians displayed great activity and courage, nearly every man going under fire, and their losses amounting to three killed, ten wounded, and eight captured. The Victorian Rifles, on February 12th, acting as outposts at a "nek" and farm near Rendsburg, made a gallant defence, and held their own against Boer attacks. In the end, however, superior force compelled the abandonment by our troops of all posts to the west of Rendsburg, and the withdrawal left the loyal farmers of the district, for a time, at the mercy of the Boers, whose advance obliged them to trek southwards, leaving their property to be plundered by the foe. Lieut.-col. Coningham, of the Worcesters, was mortally wounded on February 12th, when the Boers fiercely attacked three companies of the battalion at Slingersfontein, the British fighting them all day at odds of seven to one against our force.

We must now see what was doing to the east, where Brabant was at work with his Colonials in the region of Gatacre's command. On the morning of February 16th, the Colonial division advanced upon Dordrecht. His men met the enemy about three miles west of the town, where they were entrenched upon a line of hills, and opened fire as their assailants came on. The Colonials took up a position on a line of hills running parallel to the enemy's ridge, at a distance of about 1400 yards, and rifle-firing, without much result, continued from nine in the morning until dusk. Brabant then decided on a night-attack, without firing, and the Colonials set out, reaching the Boer lines without mishap. At midnight Captain Flanagan, of B squadron 1st Brabant's Horse, rushed in with the bayonet, and the Boers, after slight resistance, fled to their main laager, a strong position on the rugged hills north-west of the town. This brilliant exploit cost the victors only eight men killed and seven wounded. During the contest in the day-time, Brabant had sent Colonel Dalgety to Bird's River Camp, asking for the co-operation of the Cape Mounted Rifles, and the troopers came up and rode right

through the town of Dordrecht without opposition. In the midnight conflict five wagons, many carts and tents, and a large quantity of forage had been taken. During the advance on Dordrecht from Penhoek, Brabant's column had convoyed a hundred ox-wagons, heavily laden, through the heart of a rebel country, passing natural traps where a few of the enemy could have got round the advancing body. The perfect success of the march was due to splendid scouting both in front and in rear. In the short space of three days the district was cleared of rebels, and on February 19th Dordrecht was fully occupied and the court was reopened for the transaction of civil and criminal business. On the following day, General Gatacre arrived by armoured train from Sterkstroom, on the restoration of the railway-line, and the British flag was hoisted amid great enthusiasm. The prize of war at Dordrecht included rifles and large quantities of Mauser and Martini ammunition.

A sudden and surprising change of affairs now took place in the western part of the scene of conflict south of the Orange River, the Arundel and Colesberg district. The large Boer forces whom we have just seen not only barring the British advance, but causing a withdrawal to Rendsburg, vanished from the field. The cause of this striking and welcome movement was the strategical action of the British Commander-in-chief, to be fully noticed hereafter, and now dealt with in the brief statement that Lord Roberts had invaded the Orange State from the west. Most of the Boers thereupon recrossed the Orange River for the defence of their own territory, and the British force promptly advanced. On the morning of February 22nd, Colonel Page-Henderson went out to encounter Boers who, far down on our left flank, were threatening Hanover Road station, south-west of Colesberg. He had with him the Eastern Province Horse, the mounted infantry of the West Riding Regiment, a battery of Royal Horse Artillery, a squadron of the Inniskilling Dragoons, and 100 Australians, and was joined, during the day, by Australians from Hanover Road under Colonel Price. The combined body then marched on Drooifontein, occupied by about 800 Boers. Early in the morning, the West Riding detachment had surprised the enemy's pickets, capturing their food and other belongings. On approaching the Boer

position, the British guns were received with rifle-fire at short range, but the enemy soon retreated before a vigorous shell-fire, and their position was occupied for the night. On the morning of February 23rd, the advancing force found the Boers in a strong position ten miles northwards, and drove them from a part thereof by shell-fire and an outflanking movement. On Feb. 24th, Colonel Page-Henderson acted against the enemy's right flank, while General Clements made an attack in front. After a heavy bombardment by our guns, the West Riding men, under Major King and Captain Wallace, stormed several hills with the utmost gallantry, while the Inniskillings, by well-aimed volleys, drove the foe from other positions. The Boer left was too strong to be forced, but a terrible fire of shells was kept up on the main position, from three sides, for many hours, from the British guns, with lyddite and shrapnel, and the enemy, after heavy loss, as proved by the discovery of bodies and graves, evacuated the whole position during the night of rain which ensued.

The result of the operations in this quarter was that on February 27th, Col. Page-Henderson's force reoccupied Rendsburg, and on the following day General Clements, escorted by a squadron of the Inniskillings, entered Colesberg and was received with enthusiasm by most of the inhabitants. The enemy were in full retreat for the Orange River, and some leading men in the town were arrested as rebels.

When we turn again to the centre and east, we find a like satisfactory state of affairs, attended, however, by the loss of two gallant officers. On February 23rd, General Gatacre made a reconnaissance in force to Stormberg from Sterkstroom, and a rash advance of a party of scouts under Captain Montmorency, V.C., as they raced forward for the possession of a kopje, brought the men under fire at close range. Four were killed, including the leader, and many wounded. On the same day, Lieut.-colonel Hoskier, of the 3rd Middlesex Volunteer Artillery, was killed in an attack on a farm held by the Boers. In the east, the enemy, retiring in large numbers into the Free State, constructed a new drift across the Orange River between Aliwal North and Herschel, in preparation for a hasty retreat from the districts of Ladygrey and Barkly East. After the

occupation of Dordrecht, the Boers entrenched themselves in a strong position about five miles north of the town, and Brabant, turning his attention to the district beyond, recaptured Jamestown with very heavy loss to the foe, and the seizure of all their horses. Many rebels thereupon returned to their homes to pose as loyal subjects of the Queen, and to escape, through the undue leniency of the Cape authorities, the just punishment of their crime.

By March 3rd the main Boer force in the Arundel district had withdrawn across the Orange at Norval's Pont, and on the same day some hundreds of the lingering foe were driven across the river with loss from a kopje near Colesberg by Victorian and Tasmanian troops with two guns. An advance was made by the British to Achtergang, between Colesberg and Norval's Pont, and the line was repaired for future movements and the conveyance of supplies. During the whole of the operations south of Colesberg the Australians under Colonel Hoad worked to the utmost capacity of men and horses, and were duly honoured by high praise from Lord Kitchener during his visit of inspection to the camp at Arundel. The Engineers, by splendid work, opened the line up to Norval's Pont bridge, which the enemy in retreat had partially destroyed, and the troops under General Clements occupied Norval's Pont and the adjacent drift, affording a clear passage for the invasion of the Orange State from the south. Important progress was also made in the centre, where General Gatacre was in immediate command. On March 5th that officer occupied Stormberg, the scene of his disastrous attack, without opposition, and in a few days railway and telegraphic communication was reopened as far as Burghersdorp, where the British sappers had a great reception from the loyalists as the first train steamed in with the working-party on board. The mounted infantry, with some guns, then marched from Burghersdorp for Bethulie Bridge, the important point where the railway crosses the Orange into the Free State. That bridge had been destroyed by the Boers in their retreat, and this fact made the saving of the road-bridge a matter of great importance. On March 13th an active artillery-duel was being carried on between the British batteries and the Boer guns on the other side of the river, and our skirmishers, lying close to the bank,

were exchanging shots with the enemy entrenched to the north. The bridge had been saved, on the previous days, through the devoted courage of a few men and two British officers. On March 8th a party of Cape Police and Scouts, at a wild gallop on horses straining at top-speed, came up to the spot, dismounted, and sent a volley towards the bridge, on which several of the enemy were walking about laying the mines of dynamite by which the structure was to be blown to pieces. The Boer engineers fled, and, mined as the bridge was, its safety was made likely, seeing that none of the foe could show himself without being covered by one of the Police or Scouts. These men had taken up a position in the kraal of a farm commanding the northern approach to the bridge, where the wire connecting the mines was laid. All day long the brave little band of troopers, after sending back for reinforcements, held their ground while the air tingled with bullets from an overwhelming number of Boers and with shells from two big guns. For four days these heroes remained at the southern end of the broad white bridge, facing the enemy on the north, under incessant shelling and rifle-fire. To the left, far away, they heard the booming of Clements' guns at Norval's Pont, and from the distant right came the sound of Brabant's artillery at Aliwal North. On March 12th, when reinforcements, with guns, had arrived, Lieutenant Popham, of the Sherwood Foresters (Derbyshire Regiment), crossed the bridge under a hail of shot and shell, unobserved by the enemy, and cut the connecting-wires for firing the mines. On advancing through the trenches, this brave officer discovered several boxes filled with dynamite and returned to the British lines for a party of his men. As they made their way towards the bridge, the Derbyshires were exposed to a brisk rifle-fire, but, with their lives every instant in jeopardy, they actually conveyed the explosives without damage to camp. Then the battalion held the southern end of the bridge against all efforts to displace them. On the night of March 13th, Captain Grant, of the Royal Engineers, crept to the bridge, and, unseen by the enemy, took the charges of dynamite out of the borings prepared, and dropped them over into the river. At the same time, he removed the other connecting-wires, and averted the last chance of danger from the mines. Thus was Bethulie wagon-bridge saved.

In the meantime, Brabant and his men had been doing excellent work in the east, finally purging Cape Colony of the Boer invaders, and forcing rebels either to flee the country, or to assume the guise and conduct of loyal subjects of Great Britain. We have seen that the enemy had occupied a strong position at Labuschagnes Nek, about six miles north of Dordrecht. At midnight on Saturday, March 3rd, General Brabant's force moved out of Dordrecht, consisting chiefly of Brabant's Horse and Cape Mounted Rifles, with Kaffrarian and Queenstown Volunteers, Cape Police, and Royal Scots, in all about 1800 men. After a slow and careful advance, and bivouacking for some time, the assailants, shortly before daybreak on March 4th, came upon and scrambled up one of the Boer positions, a long high ridge, tapering away at the west, where a fort had been erected. To their great surprise, the British found the position empty, the enemy having gone to their laagers to sleep. Our men remained where they were, awaiting events, and at sunrise parties of the foe were seen coming towards the hill. When the Colonials had a fair number within easy range, they let off a volley from their ambush, driving off the astonished Boers. Two 15-pounder guns were then placed in the strongest position on the left side of the Nek, going towards Jamestown. A general action followed the enemy's attempt to regain the fort, and for a long time the Boers held the lower position on the ridge. The British shells finally drove them away, and the guns were turned on the main position, while troops, including some Royal Scots, worked round and captured another hill. During the night, the whole Boer force retired with their wagons and guns, leaving many men dead on the field. They were pursued for ten miles in the direction of Aliwal North, with the capture of many sheep and horned cattle. This success was followed by a surrender of rifles and much ammunition by rebels in the Ladygrey district. On the morning of Sunday, March 11th, Brabant's forces reached Aliwal North, and found that the enemy had retreated across the river to a position four miles within Orange Free State. The general, turning the tables at last on the foe, then entered their territory, and, after a sharp engagement, drove them off. Barkly East, in Cape Colony, was reoccupied by a body of Cape Police, and the rebels of the district, dismayed by the flight of the Free State

burghers, surrendered in large numbers with rifles and ammunition. These men included Justices of the Peace, field-cornets, and members of divisional councils, many of whose weapons bore the Transvaal stamp.

The Orange Free State was then further invaded from the south at several points. At a spot about five miles west of Norval's Pont, in the middle of March, the Engineers, within forty-eight hours, made a good road, about 1000 yards long, in the bed of a *nullah* or small ravine, with banks from eight to ten feet in height, as an approach for the pontoons to convey the troops across the river, there about 300 yards wide and very swift in current. Meanwhile, fatigue-parties of the Bedfordshire and Wiltshire battalions formed a way up a very precipitous kopje, about 1200 feet from the river, and a battery of field-guns was dragged up and placed in position to command the crossing. After these workmanlike preparations for a fight in crossing, the troops were bitterly disappointed in finding no enemy to oppose them, and, when the pontoon-bridge was ready, the Bedfords crossed and seized their allotted hill, followed by the Inniskillings, mounted infantry, a field-battery, Australians, and Cape Colonials. General Clements, on March 23rd, entered Philippolis, to the north-west, escorted by a body-guard of Inniskilling Dragoons with drawn swords, while the bugles sounded calls, and, riding down the street, he halted at the public buildings. The burghers having assembled in the court-house, the general addressed them and read, in both Dutch and English, the proclamation issued by Lord Roberts, and then called upon them, on his own authority, to surrender their arms and take the prescribed oaths binding them not to participate further in the war. All except ringleaders would then be allowed to return to their farms. He further explained the position of affairs, to be hereafter recorded, at Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Bloemfontein, and advised all inhabitants to accept the inevitable and obey all orders issued by the military and other duly appointed authorities. The Landdrost and Sheriffs had been, he stated, reappointed under her Majesty's Government. The burghers, after an attentive hearing, began to hand in their rifles and to take the oath. Four days later, after a trying march in rainy weather, Clements and his column reached Fauresmith, about

forty miles due north, and near there, in the prospecting-shaft of a mine, captured a nine-pounder gun and a Martini-Maxim, with a large quantity of ammunition. The general's force included, during the advance from Philippolis, the Australian Regiment, of which body of men the South and West Australians marched in the right flanking column, with two guns, under Major Douncey, while the Victorians, New South Wales men, and Tasmanians were in the left column, under Major Slee. At the diamond-mining town of Jagersfontein, east of Fauresmith, a neat place with about a thousand inhabitants, the troops were enthusiastically received by a population mostly British in race. At Fauresmith and other places visited, the British commander addressed the citizens, and a general delivery of arms was made, the burghers appearing to be resigned to the position of affairs induced by the policy of their late ruler, Mr. Steyn.

We must now see what had been occurring at the central point of invasion, near Bethulie, where General Gatacre was in command. On the morning of March 15th the general, having determined to cross the wagon-bridge into Free State territory, gathered all his mounted infantry — the Scouts, Cape Police, Derbyshires, Royal Irish Rifles, Berkshires, Royal Scots, and Northumberlands — backed by two batteries, and, in full sight of the Boer position north of the river, manœuvred them on the open plain, seeking to draw fire. When no shot came, the Scouts and Police, galloping towards the bridge, slowly crossed, and then opened out in extended order, Scouts to left and Police to right. They were followed by the rest of the mounted men, who all, after safely crossing, spread out fan-wise to right, centre, and left. Then, with careful and gradual movement, the force advanced and enveloped the town of Bethulie, behind which the Boer guns had been placed. Still not a shot was fired, and, as the invaders neared the town, large white flags were seen flying from nearly every house and store. At a gallop, the British made for the place, and, before they could enter, the Union Jack was run up in front of the hotel, owned by an Englishman. As the troops cantered towards the town-buildings, they were greeted by the strains of "God Save the Queen", vigorously thumped out of a piano. General Gatacre at once took possession of the town-hall, and in a minute Major

Neylan, the gallant commander of the Cape Police, ran up the old flag amid loud cheers from the troops and excited, unmelodious cries from the natives. Away went the Scouts after the retreating Boers, but their start was too great, and they were far away. This peaceful occupation of Bethulie was followed by one of the most dashing minor exploits of the campaign, due to Captain Hennessy, of the Cape Police, and Captain Turner, of Montmorency's Scouts. When Bethulie was entered, the general sent Hennessy, an officer on his staff, to occupy the railway-station, which lies some distance from the town. Entering the telegraph-room, he found the instruments intact, and soon had the pleasure of placing himself in communication with the important junction at Springfontein, about 30 miles to the north-west, where a British railway-ganger was in charge of the wires. He thus learned that the enemy had a rear-guard at Springfontein guarding some rolling-stock, and that the line was clear. Hennessy then sought a comrade in the enterprise which he had planned, and found his man in Turner. The two officers promptly commandeered a trolly, and started up the line. On nearing Springfontein, they espied two trains standing in the station, one engine having steam up. In a few minutes they arranged their operations, and reached the platform under cover of darkness. Carefully creeping forward, the gallant brace of Britons found a party of Boers—six Johannesburg burghers—three of them Greeks and three Italians — with bandoliers and arms complete, sound asleep in the waiting-room. In a moment the men were relieved of their rifles and ammunition, and then awakened to receive information that they were prisoners of war. Amazed at being thus "held up" by two men, they snatched for their rifles, and were amusingly astounded to find their defenceless condition. The two officers then conducted their prey to one of the trucks, and while Hennessy stood guard, Turner encountered, overawed, and disarmed two German burghers on the platform. He then interviewed the driver of the train, and found him to be an Englishman of pro-Boer sympathies. Quieted by the sight of a revolver, the man obeyed orders, and early next morning, the united train, consisting of two engines and over forty trucks, some laden with provisions, rifles, and ammunition, conveyed the

captors and their eight prisoners safely to Bethulie. The rolling-stock was a prize of special value prior to the restoration of the Bethulie railway-bridge. Thus early in the invasion, the mounted troops, by rapid movements which frightened many of the burghers back to their farms, proved their special value in South African warfare. On March 18th, General Gatacre and the Third Division were fully established at Springfontein, and a strong mounted force started thence for Smithfield, about forty miles to the east. The Free Staters in the district were at this time still coming in and surrendering their arms to the military authorities. In the eastern scene of operations, Brabant's mounted men, after sweeping the whole country near Griqualand East clear of rebels, crossed the Orange, and on March 18th occupied Rouxville, about 20 miles north of the river, without opposition, hoisting the British flag, finding large quantities of rifles, ammunition, and stores, and serving notices throughout the district for the immediate surrender of arms. The Boer commanders from Aliwal North, Bethulie, and Rouxville, numbering about 4000 men, with 16 guns, had by this time united under Olivier and other leaders, and escaped to the north-east, into a region where they were hereafter to give much trouble to British generals and troops. We may note that, during one of Brabant's raids, some official documents were captured, amongst which was a record of dead and wounded Boers, showing that the enemy had lost a great number of men, and also revealing the mendacious system adopted by the Boer leaders in stating to their countrymen the losses incurred. We must now turn back in order of time and record the great and decisive events attendant on what has been styled "the Advance of Lord Roberts", including his arrival at the Modder, the relief of Kimberley, the capture of Cronje and his army, and the occupation of the capital of the Orange Free State.

We left Lord Methuen and his army encamped on the Modder River, about twenty miles south of Kimberley, the road to which was barred by Cronje and his army of about ten thousand men, holding the formidable position, extending east and west for many miles, at Spytfontein and Magersfontein, about half-way between the Modder and the diamond-town where Colonel Kekewich, Cecil Rhodes, and the garrison and citizens, were beleaguered by the

foe. On February 3rd, General Macdonald, with the Highland Brigade, the 9th Lancers, and a field-battery, started on a reconnaissance to the west of Modder River camp, and marched about fourteen miles to the ford known as Koodoosberg Drift, forcing the enemy from certain positions. On the following days some sharp fighting took place, in which the Highlanders had the advantage, their leader displaying much tactical skill. The expedition had prevented a projected attack of the Boers upon the British communications to the south, between the Modder River position and Enslin. Macdonald and his men then returned to camp, recalled by an event of great importance in the development of the campaign. On February 9th, Lord Roberts arrived at Modder River amid the enthusiastic cheers of the troops there assembled. The Commander-in-chief had, in the very suddenness of his appearance in the field, made a first step towards the brilliant success which was before him. We have seen the importance and the difficulty of concealing from such an enemy as the Boers all knowledge of intended movements. In this case, the foe, the British troops in the field at the Modder, and the public at home, eager for a retrieval of past reverses, were alike taken by surprise. The departure of Lords Roberts and Kitchener from Cape Town was unknown there for some days to all except one or two persons fully to be trusted. With like secrecy, General French had quitted his command in the Colesberg district, and was fully believed by the Boer leaders there to be still confronting them, while he had, by way of Naauwport and De Aar Junctions, reached Orange River Station, and assumed the new command in which he was to render service so splendid to his country's cause in South Africa. In preparation for an advance from the Modder, the iron railway-bridge partially destroyed by the Boers had been repaired, with rare energy and skill, by the Royal Engineers, in spite of twisted girders and broken piers, under Major Stewart and Captain Waghorn. Some changes were made by Lord Roberts in the commands. Major-general Sir H. E. Colvile now headed the Ninth Division, composed of the 3rd (Macdonald's) and 19th (Smith-Dorrien's) Brigades, and Colonel Pole-Carew, leaving the 9th Brigade, in the First (Lord Methuen's) Division, was placed in command of the Guards' Brigade, succeeding later to the command of the 11th

Division (with local rank as Lieutenant-general), composed of the Guards, and of the 18th Brigade under Colonel Stephenson. Reginald Pole-Carew, C.B., born on May-day, 1849, entered the Coldstream Guards twenty years later, and in 1895 became commander of the Second Battalion of that splendid corps. In his early manhood, "Polly-Carey", as his friends style him, was known as the handsomest subaltern in the Guards. In military service, he had the best possible training, as A.D.C. and Military Secretary to Lord Roberts for many years in India, receiving decorations for the Afghan War of 1879–80, including the march to Kandahar; for service in Egypt in 1882, and in the Burma campaign of 1886. We have seen how, at the battle of Modder River, Pole-Carew and his men crossed the stream, forcing the enemy's right. This dashing soldier, beloved alike by officers and men, was destined to be actively engaged until nearly the end of the war.

The besieged population of Kimberley, the second largest town in Cape Colony, containing 50,000 persons, of whom about two-thirds were Europeans and half-castes, and the rest natives of various tribes, had been singularly favoured in the matter of the food-supply. In addition to the large number of human beings, there were about 6000 horses, cows, and other animals to be fed. The place would have been, beyond doubt, forced to surrender from starvation but for a number of fortunate circumstances. For some months previous to the declaration of war the De Beers Company, anticipating the possibility of a siege, laid in large supplies of food-stuffs, coal, other fuel, and various mining requisites. Many of the townspeople, also, after the failure of the Bloemfontein Conference, gathered private stocks sufficient to support them for several months. Kimberley, moreover, as a large commercial and distributing centre, supplied an extensive tract of country in the Free State, in Griqualand West, and in Bechuanaland, with double or triple its own population. A regular business in food-stuffs was conducted by large Kimberley firms with towns and villages whose names have been made familiar to British readers of news on the war—Jacobsdal and Boshof, Windsorton and Klipdam, Barkly West, Griquatown, Douglas, Taungs, Vryburg, Mafeking, and many more. In addition to this, nearly all the food-supplies for the country west

of Kimberley, as far as the border of Great Namaqualand, were drawn through the same centre. Furthermore, the new crops of mealies (maize) and Kaffir corn (millet) had just been bought up by the firms interested in this line of business, and these supplies, most useful food both for human beings and for live-stock, had been "rushed" into Kimberley, owing to the unsettled condition of the Free State, from which they are largely drawn and where they are often held for the purpose of taking advantage of other markets. The mealies, during the siege, were largely used for horses; the Kaffir corn was ground into meal and sold to the natives. A considerable supply of stores, stopped in transit, was furnished by the railway-station. The town is a transship depôt for the northern system of railways, and a large number of trucks was always there, loaded and *en route* for the north. As soon as the line was cut by the Boers north of Vryburg, the railway authorities ran all goods from that station back to Kimberley. These supplies included a large part of 1000 bags of meal intended for the Transvaal government, which arrived by almost the last train that got through from Vryburg. Some account of the management of the food-supply by Colonel Kekewich and his staff has already been given. On January 3rd, 1900, the meat-ration was reduced from half a pound to a quarter-pound per day for adults, the meat being sold under the control of the military authorities in the market-buildings. Horse-flesh was first served out on January 8th, and became thenceforth the chief food of the white and coloured population. Towards the end of the siege, a few mules and donkeys were consumed, but the people were never brought to dogs and cats. During the last two months the natives were forced to subsist almost entirely on a meal-diet, and scurvy became terribly prevalent among them, there being at one time 400 cases in one hospital. The supply of lime-juice and other antiscorbutics was exhausted early in January, and vine-cuttings were being eaten as green food. On January 13th, small numbers of eggs were being sold at 15*s.* a dozen; fowls fetched 12*s.* 6*d.* each, and potatoes were at 3*s.* a pound. On Jan. 17th leave was granted to the people at Beaconsfield to shoot small birds for food. Two days later, when provisions of all sorts had begun to run short, Mr. Rhodes started a soup-kitchen for the town. Everybody who wished could give up

their meat-ration to be converted into soup, and he supplied the vegetables from Kenilworth gardens. The soup was sold at 3*d.* per pint, and was of inestimable benefit to the people at large, who were almost destitute of fuel for cooking. By the end of the siege, about 15,000 people were being thus fed. It was the season for typhoid in the district, the disease being greatly aggravated owing to the crowding together of the people and other insanitary conditions. The thermometer stood constantly between 80 and 95 degrees in the shade, and the lack of milk caused the rate of infant mortality to be very high. Such were some of the conditions of life in the beleaguered town.

Of the bombardment some particulars have already been given, showing the severe effects of shelling by the enemy's great Creusot gun. When the first week of February had passed away, the hour of relief was close at hand. The people had, during four weary months, and especially after the bitter disappointment caused by the disaster at Magersfontein, displayed on all hands—men and women, young and old—conduct worthy of the highest praise. They endured hardships without lamentation or impatience, but with a cheerfulness that neither shells nor short rations could subdue. Most valuable assistance was rendered, among the citizens of the town, by Mr. Rhodes; Mr. H. A. Oliver, the Mayor; and Mr. R. H. Henderson, the ex-Mayor, in maintaining order among the civil inhabitants, encouraging them to hold out to the last, regulating the issue of food, attending to the sick and wounded, and co-operating generally with the military commander, Lieut.-col. Kekewich. To this officer high praise was accorded by Lord Roberts for "the able dispositions which he made for the defence of an unwalled town spread over a large area; for his rapid organization of an auxiliary force which, in conjunction with the regular troops, enabled him to keep the enemy in check; and for the tact, judgment, and resolution which he displayed throughout the siege". Colonel Kekewich, for his part, awarded a like meed of eulogy to the 1st Battalion Loyal North Lancashires, Cape Police, Diamond Fields Horse and Artillery, and Kimberley Light Horse, for their cheerful performance of very arduous work, and especially for the bravery and dash with which they attacked the enemy on several occasions in entrenched positions. He

also praised the citizens who so readily enrolled themselves in the Light Horse and in the Town Guards of Kimberley and Beaconsfield, and assigned great merit to Major O'Meara, the Intelligence Officer, whose duties included arrangements connected with despatch-riders; to Captain D. S. MacInnes, R.E., in charge of the engineer operations; to Major G. D. Chamier; to Commissioner Robinson, of the Cape Police; and to Lieut.-col. Peakman, of the Kimberley Light Horse. The casualties in the town for the period between October 13th and February 16th amounted to 41 killed, of whom 2 were officers, 34 non-commissioned officers and men, 4 civilians (European), and 1 native; and 133 wounded, comprising 12 officers, 97 non-coms. and men, 16 civilians (European), and 8 natives.

On Saturday, February 10th, 1900, the aspect of affairs in South Africa was gloomy enough to one who knew not what was in the minds of Lords Roberts and Kitchener, of General French and a few other British leaders, and who was not aware of the secret preparations made for a swift and startling blow. Kimberley was suffering from a bombardment far more severe than any before experienced, with 100-lb. shells crashing into the heart of the town. The redoubtable Cronje was, as it seemed, impregnably fixed at Spytfontein and Magersfontein. Lord Methuen still sat impotent upon the northern bank of the Modder. In Natal, and on the southern side of the Orange River in Cape Colony—on the Tugela, at Colesberg, and at Sterkstroom—matters had not improved. Then came a transformation-scene which astounded the world. Men who had been assured that it was impossible ever to get round a position occupied by Boers, on account of their rapid movements, woke up to see the impossible performed—to behold wily foemen out-generalled, outmanœuvred, outflanked, their very rear reached, and with no resource left but instant flight or sure destruction. The long-deferred invasion of the Free State had really begun on Friday, February 9th, when Colonel Hannay's brigade of mounted infantry rode in from the Orange River, at the south-west corner of the enemy's country, and fought an action with a small Free State force, under Commandant Jacob, at Wolves-Kraal, in order to cover the advance of their transport to the north. When dawn broke on Sunday, February 11th, a great

cavalry-division, under General French, was silently gathering at Enslin and Graspan. The movement of the horsemen from Rendsburg had begun during the last days of January, and on February 5th, when the changes had been completed, French and his staff went to Modder River Camp. On Monday, February 12th, at 2 a.m., the force moved out north-eastwards for Ramdam, a little place about twelve miles from Enslin. This division of cavalry and mounted infantry consisted of five brigades. The 6th Dragoon Guards (Carabineers), 2nd Dragoons (Scots Greys), 6th Dragoons (Inniskillings), and New South Wales Lancers were under General Porter. The Household Cavalry, 10th Hussars, and 12th Lancers were commanded by General Broadwood. General Gordon led the 9th Lancers, 16th Lancers, and Roberts' Horse, Kitchener's Horse remaining with the infantry. Colonels Hannay and Ridley commanded the two brigades of mounted infantry. The artillery, under General Marshall, comprised six batteries of field-artillery, and seven of horse-artillery, a howitzer battery, and a naval contingent of four 4·7 and four 12-pounders under Captain Bearcroft, of the *Philomel*. The infantry force was in three divisions. The Sixth Division, under General Kelly-Kenny, comprised the 14th (Knox's) Brigade — Oxford Light Infantry, Gloucesters, West Ridings, and Buffs, and the 18th (Stephenson's) Brigade— Essex, Welsh Regiment, 2nd Warwicks, and Yorks. The Seventh Division (General Tucker) was made up of the 14th (Chermside's) Brigade — Scottish Borderers, Lincolns, Hampshires, and Norfolks, and the 15th (Wavell's) Brigade — North Staffords, Cheshires, South Wales Borderers, and East Lancashires. The Ninth Division (General Colvile) included the Highland (Macdonald's) Brigade — Black Watch, Seaforths, Argylls and Sutherlands, and Highland Light Infantry—and the 19th (Smith-Dorrien's) Brigade—the Gordons, Canadians, Shropshires, and Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry.

The whole splendid army — including a pontoon-train and a company of Royal Engineers, with the Rimington Guides accompanying the advance—which thus, on the hot, dusty morning of February 12th, invaded the Free State, amounted to 23,000 infantry, and 11,000 mounted men, with 98 guns of all kinds, and a transport-train of over 700 wagons drawn by nearly 9000

mules and oxen. The object in view was to turn General Cronje's position, extending west and east from Magersfontein to Koodoosberg Drift, and almost to Klip Drift on the Modder, in order both to relieve Kimberley, and, if possible, to cut off Cronje's retreat towards Bloemfontein and to invest his whole force. The plan, most skilfully conceived and concealed, and worked out with admirable swiftness and skill, was modified, as will be seen, when Cronje's flight from Magersfontein changed the whole direction of the march, and made his overtaking and heading off the one object to be accomplished. We are, however, for the present concerned only with the movements which led to the relief of long-beleaguered Kimberley. It was the business of the great mounted force, in this memorable part of the campaign, to advance with all speed and seize positions to be held by the more slowly moving infantry as a security in flank and rear for the more mobile invaders. In moving north-eastwards from Ramdam towards the Riet River, about fifteen miles distant, the force under General French encountered the enemy before four miles of ground had been covered. They were in position among the hills known as Pramberg, on a kopje running up from the river to within two miles of the road. Captain Rankin, of Rimington's Guides, climbing an outlying hill at an early hour, came face to face with a strong party of Boers engaged, like himself, in reconnoitring, and he had to beat a hasty retreat with his two men, under a sharp fire, escaping with an ankle badly sprained on the rough ground. The Boers then opened on General French and his staff with shell at 1600 yards, from a concealed 12-pounder gun, and the officers had a narrow escape. Colonel Broadwood was at once detailed with a battery and mounted infantry to occupy the attention of the foe, while the leader pushed on speedily, but very carefully scouting, with the right and centre, for the Riet at Dekiel's and Waterval Drifts, which were reached by the patrols at about eight in the morning. The men, about thirty-five in number, were gathered at Dekiel's Drift, watering horses and filling bottles, when Major Hunter Weston, R.E., came dashing down from the high ground, wrenching a shoe off his horse among the stones, and finishing at a run on foot, with tidings that Boers were hastening to seize a kopje on the right which commanded the passage over the Riet. A

skirmishing-party was sent out just in time to cut the enemy's line with their fire, and a sharp action of nearly an hour's duration, with some British guns at work, cleared the enemy away, and gave our troops firm possession of the northern bank. The road at Dekiel's Drift was a very bad one, and a good deal of work was needed before even cavalry could approach it. By 10 a.m., however, a battery was across, and the rest of the day, until midnight, was occupied in the passage of troops, guns, and transport, including the pontoon. Waterval Drift was also secured, and early on the morning of Tuesday, February 13th, the position was occupied by the Sixth Infantry Division, accompanied by Lord Kitchener. The Ninth Division followed the same route, and the Seventh Division crossed the Riet at Dekiel's Drift.

The next step forward was the advance of General French from the Riet to the Modder. The chief loss hitherto incurred was that of Captain Majendie, second in command of Roberts' Horse, who was shot through the body at long range from a kopje at Dekiel's Drift. Before a start was made on February 13th, Lord Roberts, having ridden up from Ramdam, made an inspection and confirmed the plan to be pursued, and the great mounted force then entered on the most arduous part of their task. At 9 a.m. the march was resumed in column of brigade, on a front of three miles in breadth, with the pace so regulated as to permit guns and ammunition-transport to be kept close up. Major Rimington, of the Scouts, was in charge of guiding the force across a belt of absolutely waterless country, twenty-three miles in width by compass, and entailing an actual march of thirty miles. Speed was of the utmost importance under the stern need for reaching water at nightfall if the horses were ever to proceed further, and the mind of every officer and man was impressed by this necessity. There were many fine positions for resistance to be made by the enemy on the way, and within an hour of starting the British left wing was engaged in skirmishing, and from time to time a Maxim opened fire. For the most part the enemy were answered only with carabines, though once a gun was called into action. The patrol on the right went to a farm in which the inhabitants were still living, and asked for a drink. The womenfolk brought some milk, and whilst the men were quenching their

thirst, a number of Boers hidden in the garden shot into the party, emptying two saddles. The rest of the patrol hurried off, and a couple of shells were dropped into the farm-buildings. The word was, however, "Haste! post haste!" for the enterprise in hand. The heat grew ever fiercer, and under the burning sunshine of one of the hottest days of a hot, dry summer, the distress of men and horses was very great. The halts became longer to enable the gun-horses to hold out, but even then the hard-striving friends and servants of man were falling in the traces from sheer exhaustion.

It was about four in the afternoon when, as a gentle rise was topped, a line of trees and low bushes showed the Modder beyond a long stretch of arid plain. Colonel Broadwood, on the right front, pushed on with speed, and, at a few minutes past five a patrol dashed at a house with a windmill-pump about three-quarters of a mile from the river, the people rushing out and down to the stream as the British horsemen rode up. At the same moment, the 12th Lancers galloped down to find the drifts over the river, supported on the left by a company of mounted infantry. The passages aimed at were Rondeval and Klip Drifts. A dropping fire from the enemy was kept up for some minutes, and then the Lancers dashed across the ford into the Boer camp, the enemy fleeing at full speed from the dreaded horsemen. The Lancers, having passed the camp, sighted a wagon-convoy in retreat. They galloped on, and the escort fled, leaving thirteen wagons loaded with stores, which were brought back to camp. In the laager itself many tents, wagons, and horses, with stores of various kinds, ammunition, and even bread hot from the ovens, were captured. Some fresh fruit was a very welcome prize to our parched warriors, but the greatest boon was the ample water of the Modder. The enemy had been completely surprised by the rapidity of the advance, and the troops bivouacked on the banks, with scanty supplies of food either for man or horse until, at dusk, convoy-wagons began to arrive. A day's halt was now made by General French for the arrival of the Sixth Division and mounted infantry, with two field-batteries and two naval 12-pounders, destined to protect his left flank on the side of Magersfontein. At sunrise on the morning of that day (Wednesday, February 14th), the camp

was shelled by the Boers with a long-range 15-pounder throwing shrapnel with remarkable precision. The British artillery soon succeeded in knocking over the gunners and disabling their weapon, and the remainder of the day was spent in "sniping" fire, of which the enemy had the worse. In the evening, the arrival of more wagons gave a good meal both to horses and men, and prepared them for the final stage of their famous movement to the relief of Kimberley. Before describing this event, we must note an exploit of the British sailors engaged in the expedition. As the Modder River was neared, General French, in order to cover the passage at Klip Drift, ordered a 12-pounder naval gun to be placed at the top of a kopje dominating a ridge and the river. The blue-jackets set cheerily to work, but before they had got far with their big gun one of the wheels of the carriage gave way beyond hope of speedy repair. The naval men, aided by some athletic troopers, then lifted the weapon bodily from the carriage, and hauled, dragged, and carried it for two miles, over broken and constantly rising ground, to the summit of the kopje. After this grand piece of work, which won special praise from Lord Kitchener, the sailors improvised a platform for the gun with such cleverness and speed that when the troops, in the early morning, began the passage of the river, the 12-pounder was able to take an effective part in covering the operation. Before the day was over, the weapon had fairly driven off about a thousand Boers with heavy loss.

The supreme hours of the operations for the relief of Kimberley came with daylight on Thursday, February 15th. During the night the infantry had begun to arrive, and as the cavalry moved out of the camp for the final advance, it passed into the keeping of the foot. At 8.40 a.m. the march north-westwards for the besieged town, twenty miles distant, was headed by the 9th Lancers, across country nearly level for about four miles. The troops were then confronted by a large square-topped kopje, covered by a smaller wooded hill running out at right angles to the great kopje, on the British left flank. It was clear that the enemy held the position in force, seeing that they allowed the advance-patrol to come within 400 yards before opening a sharp fire which drove back our horsemen with one or two empty saddles and the loss of some horses. The guns hurried up, and

one battery devoted itself to shelling the great hill, while two others, in the left rear, engaged the advance-post, from which a Boer gun was vigorously shelling the assailants, supported by a sharp rifle-fire. In about half an hour, seventeen British gunners in the two left batteries were disabled, and then General French, resolved to clear the way by a full use of his overwhelming mounted force, ordered a great charge. The two hills held by the enemy were connected by gently rising ground running up to a nek or pass. The cavalry were bidden to advance at a gallop for the nek, and cut the Boers in two. On went the 9th and 16th Lancers under a heavy fire from trenches and from the kopje above, at ranges varying from 150 to 800 yards, while men and horses in the ranks of our cavalry rolled over every moment. Nearer and nearer the two grand regiments swept forward on the foe, and their nerve was clearly shaken as the British horsemen closed. Throwing up their Mausers and their hands, the Boers begged for mercy, but it was too late. British blood was up, the charge could not be stayed, and as the Lancers rode on about 140 of the enemy were killed or wounded, and the rest fled in complete disorder. The Household Cavalry, the 12th Lancers, 10th Hussars, and a squadron of the Inniskillings, followed in open order.

The moral effect of this charge was very great. Between the relieving force and the town of Kimberley still lay miles of country with kopje after kopje providing strong positions for defence, but no real further stand was made by the Boers. The whole force of some ten thousand mounted men, three field-batteries, and seven of horse-artillery, entered the great plain of Alexandersfontein, south-east of Beaconsfield, an expanse of ground three miles in width and five in length, converging slightly to the north and fringed with kopjes. The only trees on the ground to be traversed were scattered groups, in threes and fours, of thorns and wild quinces, and the whole force, headed by the Lancers on the right, and by the Carabineers and Greys on the left, deployed to ten-yard intervals and dashed along. The horsemen were almost hidden by the curtain of dust rising from under the hoofs of their steeds, and the bullets and shells poured from the hills on either side did little harm. The positions were instantly cleared of their occupants by the impetuous rush of mounted infantry. Lieutenant Sweet-Escott,

MEETING OF FRENCH AND RHODES AT KIMBERLEY

When all was ready for the invasion of the Orange Free State, General French, with a large force of cavalry, horse-artillery, and mounted infantry, including a considerable number of Colonial troops, crossed the Riet River and moved by forced marches towards Kimberley. His skilful and rapid movements surprised and outwitted the Boers, who, consequently, made but slight opposition to his advance. On the fourth day he raised the siege and entered Kimberley, which had been isolated for four months. The illustration shows his meeting with Mr. Cecil Rhodes, who remained in Kimberley throughout the siege, and took an active part in the defence.

S. BEGG. 75

MEETING OF FRENCH AND RHODES AT KIMBERLEY.

of the 16th Lancers, was shot dead at 50 yards' range by a Boer, who received a lance through his throat almost before he could produce a cry for mercy. The Boers were driven from the hills to right and left as the column went forward like a great ploughshare thrusting aside the foe, helpless to withstand the tremendous charge and almost powerless to harm it. For a moment the advance was checked by a barbed rinderpest-fence stretching across the plain, and the Boers were enabled, by this halt, to withdraw their guns. At a farm at the northern end of the plain, the column halted and re-formed after watering the horses. The relievers had come ten miles from Klip Drift and broken the ring around the besieged town. The swiftness of the advance had prevented any severe loss and had made Cronje, with his army of ten thousand men, think of instant flight instead of any attempt to stay the British. From the farm onwards the country now resembled some great English park studded with single trees and undulating in an expanse of long sunburnt grass through which the guns ploughed long tracks in the crumbling red soil. The pace was beginning to tell, and horse after horse that had struggled on so far fell dead from some wound unnoticed in the heat of the fight. Three miles on, as the leading riders topped some rising ground, the tall chimneys of Kimberley and the machinery of the mines were descried through the fringe of trees, and hailed with a loud cheer by those who had arrived as deliverers, at a cost to themselves which did not exceed a hundred men.

The enemy to the north of the town were firing their last shots from their great gun as the immense mass of mounted men emerged from the trees and moved down the long slopes fronting the rising ground on which stands the town of Wesselton, due east of Kimberley. The good news had been heliographed from a kopje to Colonel Kekewich, who promptly ordered an attack on Kamfersdam, the point in the defences opposite to that of the British advance. The suburb of Alexandersfontein had been captured by the Kimberley men on the previous day, and there was nothing to hinder a peaceful entry. At the first barrier Kekewich, coming forth to welcome General French, was met by Major Sprott, of the Carabineers, and Major Rimington, of the Guides. At dusk, General French entered the town

by way of Wimbledon, on the south-west, and was met by Mr. Cecil Rhodes. The long siege was over, with the saving of British honour, of a gallant body of defenders, a brave civilian population, and of the diamond-mines which the Boers had eagerly desired to seize. This great success was achieved mainly through the strategy of Lord Roberts, the skill of General French, the valuable aid of Major Haig, his chief of the Staff, and of Major Lawrence, his admirable Intelligence-officer, and the resolution, discipline, and zeal displayed by the troops under difficulties due, not to the courage or ability of human antagonists, but to distance, heat, hurry, and lack of water. On the following day, Friday, February 16th, General French was early afoot with cavalry, mounted infantry, and guns, in order to clear the enemy from every position still held. At Dronfield alone, due north of Kimberley, was any resistance made. The place was surrounded by our troops, and the enemy suffered severely from Maxim-fire, but the obstinate defence caused French to delay any attempt to storm the position with wearied men. During the night the enemy withdrew, abandoning their only gun, which was captured by the Cape Police, and thus concluded the operations in connection with the relief of Kimberley. Before dealing with the flight and capture of Cronje, we note some minor matters in the invasion of the Orange Free State.

On February 15th, Major-general Wavell, with the Fifteenth Brigade, delivered an attack on Jacobsdal, a small town between Riet and Modder Rivers, about ten miles east of Modder River Station. For the first time, the City of London Imperial Volunteers came into action, when about a hundred men of that body, thrown out as advance-scouts in the approach from the east, skirmished in excellent style in front of the infantry, and were among the first to enter the town. The 2nd Cheshires and 2nd North Staffordshires were to left and right, with the 2nd South Wales Borderers in support, and the 1st East Lancashires in rear, protecting the baggage. The Boers, about 500 strong, were without artillery, but kept up a hot rifle-fire. When they were driven out, they retired over an exposed ridge at the back of the town, and were freely shelled by the 75th Battery. The town was occupied, and the ridge behind it captured, by four

o'clock. A few prisoners were taken, including the Landdrost, but the civilian inhabitants were not disturbed. The casualties among the British were few. Some prisoners in the hands of the enemy, including Colonel Henry, of the Northumberland Fusiliers, were released. On February 18th, Lord Roberts issued to the people of the Orange Free State the Proclamation which has been referred to, assuring them that "her Majesty's Government acquitted them of entering on the war of their own free will", and blaming the Free State Government for undertaking active hostilities, especially after the long period during which peaceful and friendly relations had subsisted between their country and Great Britain, and the guarantee of independence formerly given to the Free State by the British empire. The Commander-in-Chief called upon all those who desired to end the war to remain in their homes, and denounced as false the statements that the British cherished feelings of enmity against the people of the Republic; and the report that the British Government contemplated the wholesale confiscation of their property and estates. All peaceable persons who refrained from giving information to the armed forces of the enemy would be fully protected. Soldiers were forbidden to enter private houses, and all goods required would be paid for, or an acknowledgment given by responsible officers. This proclamation, as its terms became known, had an excellent effect, in general, in the Orange Free State, and strengthened the influence of the party who had been opposed to the war, and were striving for the restoration of peace.

We must now see what was the position of General Cronje, the victor of Magersfontein and besieger of Kimberley, after the skilful, striking, and successful strategy and tactics of Lord Roberts and General French had relieved the town. Lord Methuen, with his force, was opposite Magersfontein. General Tucker held Jacobsdal, with Colvile's Division close at hand, ready to move in any direction; Kelly-Kenny held the Klip and Rondeval Drifts on the Modder; and General French was at Kimberley. The Boer commander was thus completely outflanked, and the position of his army at Spytfontein was untenable. Retreat, or starvation under complete investment, were the only alternatives. Commander Cronje, a determined foe of the British for over twenty

years, was a man of well-proved courage and skill. The big-boned, sturdy, broad-shouldered man, with heavy black beard, and eyes of a steel-gray peering out from beneath shaggy brows, had passed his sixty-fifth year. A typical Boer of the veldt, tough and shrewd, fatalistic in religion, crooked as to nice points of honour, a man of very few words, of strong, masterful nature, a soldier and nothing more, Cronje was, in 1880, one of the leaders in Potchefstroom district who refused to pay taxes, an incident which initiated the successful rebellion against British rule in Mr. Gladstone's day of power. He it was who issued the circular summoning the burghers to the great meeting at Paardekraal, and men under his command fired the first shot in the war of independence. In that brief contest he took a leading part, being entrusted with the siege of Potchefstroom. He was there distinguished by inhumanity in refusing to allow a number of ladies and children, who had taken shelter in the fort, to go back to the town, replying that "they had sought the protection of the British, let the British protect them if they could". In the result, these helpless people suffered severely from fever and Boer bullets. On the same occasion, Cronje was guilty of gross bad faith in disregarding Joubert's orders to inform the garrison of the armistice, and thus entrapping the British defenders into a surrender. He showed considerable skill, when the "Jameson Raid" occurred, in bringing the invaders to bay and forcing surrender at Doornkop. He was now doomed to succumb to superior skill and overwhelming force, wielded against him by the detested British.

The Boer general, when he discovered the full extent of Lord Roberts' turning-movement, and saw that he was in imminent danger of being enclosed, quitted the trenches at Magersfontein and Spytfontein, with his whole force, on the night of Thursday, February 15th. His object was to escape far enough to the east to be able to re-form his troops and present a new line of defence to the British advance on Bloemfontein. He himself, with the transport, trekked away along the north bank of the Modder, but the bulk of his men were ordered to get through the British lines as best they could. On the morning of Friday, February 16th, Kaffirs brought news to Modder River Station that the Boer laagers were deserted, and those who rode across the trenches found the whole position littered with provisions, clothes, books,

and other personal effects, indicating the hurry and confusion of the past night's flight. At daybreak on Friday, the troops at Klip Drift saw a vast dust-cloud passing across the plain to the north-east. Lord Kitchener, understanding at once what that cloud meant, gave orders for the mounted infantry to follow up and attack the convoy. Riding in pursuit across the plain, the British strove to get to the north of the enemy, while General Knox's brigade was pushed along the north bank of the river, which makes a great bend northwards between Klip Drift and Klipkraal Drift, so as to strike the convoy on its southern flank. Cronje sent on his wagons to Drieputs Farm, at the north-eastern end of the bend, where they laagered at about 11 a.m. and maintained a fight with the British troops during the day. The Boers conducted the rear-guard action with great skill. As the detachments on the extreme right of their force were driven back by the mounted infantry, they rode round behind their centre and took up fresh positions on their left against the 81st Battery and Knox's Brigade, advancing along the north bank of the Modder. At midday the enemy were striving to hold three low kopjes two miles north-east of Klip Drift, but were driven back to a stronger position at Drieputs. The troops engaged were chiefly the 1st West Ridings, 1st Oxford Light Infantry, 2nd East Kent, and 2nd Gloucesters, aided by the 81st Battery, in three groups of two guns each, and a naval gun brought into action at long range on the south bank. The main body of the Boers, during our fighting with the rear-guard, continued their retreat up the river and succeeded in reaching Klipkraal Drift, where they crossed to the south. The movement had been foreseen by Lord Kitchener, and some mounted infantry and a battery were withdrawn over Klip Drift and sent by the south bank to block the passage. When they reached Klipkraal Drift, however, a sufficient number of Boers had got across to defend the position. The British guns continued firing until darkness set in. Thus ended matters on Friday, February 16th. The day's operations had been without any certain effect as to cutting off Cronje, but, at a cost of about 100 men killed and wounded, his pursuers had captured about 120 wagons laden with stores, two wagons with Mauser rifles, eight boxes full of shells, ten barrels of explosives, and a large quantity of other effects.

On Saturday, February 17th, events of great importance

occurred, General French again rendering essential service by his rapid movement. At nightfall on the previous day, the 18th Brigade (Colonel Stephenson's), excepting the 2nd Warwicks, who were left behind at Jacobsdal, had recrossed the river at Klip Drift, and they marched off at 3 a.m. on the 17th, south of the Modder, in order, if possible, to head off the Boer general at Paardeberg or Koodoosrand Drifts. They were joined about 10 o'clock that morning, at Klipkraal Drift, by Knox's Brigade, which marched along the northern bank. The mounted infantry, pushing on, reached Paardeberg Drift that evening and encamped on rising ground close to the south bank. The infantry, leaving Klipkraal at 6 in the evening, after a long halt for rest, made a night-march for Paardeberg Drift, but, missing their way, passed the spot and bivouacked on some rising ground nearly two miles beyond, separated from the river by a smooth plain shelving gently down to the stream. The mistake was a fortunate one, as it brought the infantry almost opposite to the place where Cronje had resolved to cross. The Boer commander, having moved again to the northern bank, pushed on during Saturday for Koodoosrand Drift. Meanwhile, a decisive movement had been made by General French. That able leader, with his cavalry division, and a brigade composed of the 10th Hussars, 12th Lancers, Composite Regiment of Household Cavalry, and two batteries of Royal Horse Artillery, under the command of Colonel Broadwood, left Kimberley on Saturday morning, and pushed on rapidly to the Modder. At two o'clock the force reached a point on the river five miles above Paardeberg, just in time to head off the retreating Boers under Cronje. That commander, hearing that French was holding a line of high kopjes running north-west from Koodoosrand Drift and completely commanding it, wheeled his wagons to the right across the plain and laagered, on the north bank, at Wolveskraal Farm. This was opposite to a drift of the same name, about half-way between Paardeberg and Koodoosrand Drifts, being about four miles in a straight line from each. He intended to cross there on Sunday morning, but, during the night, he heard of the presence of the mounted infantry south of Paardeberg Drift, and was aware that he could not get his convoy away without fighting. These circumstances led to the fierce battle of Sunday, February 18th.

The country between Paardeberg and Koodoosrand Drifts, the scene of action, may be first described. At this point, as along most of its course, the Modder flows along the bottom of a deep cutting, excavated down for about 30 feet in soft soil, and from 30 to 100 yards in width, the sides and edges of which are thickly grown with mimosa and willow-trees. On both sides, but especially on the south, numerous small dongas or ravines project at right angles from the river-bed, affording excellent shelter against an enemy advancing either across the open plain or along the river. The general course of the Modder from Koodoosrand Drift is west-south-west, with short bends to the south about two miles on each side of Wolveskraal Drift. On the south bank, a smooth grassy plain, from 2500 to 3000 yards across at its widest point, shelves down to the river, bordered by slightly rising ground. On the south of Koodoosrand Drift are some kopjes running east and west, about 1500 yards from the water. On the north bank of the river is a plain like that on the south, but rather more shelving, and broken by low kopjes coming down within 1000 yards of the river. Just north of the drift is the large flat-topped hill, about 300 feet high, called Paardeberg, which gives its name to the ford. On Sunday morning General MacDonald arrived, after a forced march, with the Highland Brigade, comprising the Seaforths, Black Watch, and Argylls and Sutherlands. The position was this. The Boers, occupying the centre of the circle, were posted in the bend of the river and on both banks. General French was to the north-east, and also holding the river eastwards; General Kelly-Kenny, with the Sixth Division, was to the south-east, and General MacDonald was on the south-west.

The battle began soon after daybreak with a heavy rifle-fire, opened by the Boers from the river-bed upon the mounted infantry while they were still at their breakfast. After some severe work, the mounted infantry succeeded in driving back the enemy and clearing the river-bed for about a quarter of a mile above Paardeberg Drift. Meanwhile, at the sound of the firing, the Sixth Division marched into the plain and deployed, and the Highland Brigade came down and extended themselves on the left of Kelly-Kenny's men, with the Argylls and Sutherlands on the right, the Black Watch in the centre, and the Seaforths on the left. The whole line rapidly advanced across a perfectly smooth

plain, offering even less cover than the ground which Lord Methuen's troops had to cross for attack at the Modder River Battle away to the west. While the infantry went forward, the 76th and 81st batteries, with a howitzer-battery, were posted on a slight rise about 2000 yards south-east of the Boer laager, and 1600 yards from the nearest point of the river. The Highland Brigade were exposed to a terrific fire, obliging the men to lie prone, in which position they remained from 7.30 a.m., through dreadful heat and a fierce thunder-storm, shooting steadily in reply to the enemy's fire during the day. About 9 o'clock, General Smith-Dorrien's brigade, except the Cornwall Light Infantry, kept in reserve, crossed the Paardeberg Drift and fought their way nearly a mile up the north bank among the bushes. When further progress in that direction was impossible, the men made a curve at some distance to the north-east so as to get above the lower bend of the river, held in great strength by the Boers, and extended themselves, with the Shropshires on the right, the Canadians in the centre, and the Gordons on the left. The Shropshires and Canadians then went forward, by a series of short rushes, in the most gallant style, the Canadians especially showing a magnificent, almost reckless, bravery. These two battalions and the 82nd battery, which Colvile had sent in support, did great execution among the enemy in a stretch of the river-bank above the bend, where they were able, to some extent, to enfilade them. The British infantry were, however, unable to storm the laager, owing to the terrible hail of fire from rifles, a Vickers-Maxim, and one or two other guns. At about 11 o'clock French's horse-artillery planted itself on the rising ground north of the Boer laager and shelled that and the river-bed. Some of their missiles went a little too far, and at one time the shrapnel was falling with unpleasant freedom into the fighting-line of the Highland Brigade.

Towards mid-day the mounted infantry, who had occupied a kopje south of Koodoosrand Drift, crossed the river and advanced some distance along the north bank under a heavy fire. Soon after 1 o'clock the Welsh and Essex battalions rushed the river-bank below the point crossed by the mounted infantry, and, after crossing, worked their way down among the bushes on both sides and in the river-bed. Both of these bodies, doing splendid work,

suffered very heavily. Towards the end of the afternoon, in one of the rushes made by the Welsh, 24 out of a party of 25 who tried to storm the laager were shot down. About the same time, the 13th Brigade and the Highlanders, whose brigadiers were both wounded, General Knox through the shoulder and General MacDonald in the foot, made a most determined attempt to get down to the river, the Highlanders being reinforced by half of the Cornwalls. At about 2 o'clock Knox's Brigade and the Yorks got down to the river-bank just above the bend, while three companies of the Seaforths and three of the Black Watch crossed the river below. The bend itself was so strongly held that the rest of the Highland Brigade were unable to get within 400 yards of the enemy. The enormous power of the repeating-rifle, in the hands of capable and courageous men, was never more clearly shown than in this battle, in which a few thousand Boers held at bay a greatly superior force of the best troops, aided by a powerful artillery. Though the British soldiers held the river-bank both above and below the bend, the Boers maintained their position there till nightfall, when they withdrew to their laager. The Canadians and Shropshires, by 3 p.m., found themselves unable to make any further advance. At 3.30 General Colvile sent three and a half companies of the Cornwalls to support them. These brave men, passing through the Shropshires and Canadians, and picking up a certain number of those wearied warriors, advanced to within 800 yards of the Boer position and then made a charge which, with the advance of the Welsh on the other flank, was the most striking performance of the day. The Cornwalls lost their commander, Colonel Aldous, and, in spite of the utmost efforts, were unable to carry the charge home and to come to close quarters with the foe.

The work of the British guns was very destructive. The shells fell with marvellous precision along the river-bed, forcing the enemy back until they reached the part of the river opposite the laager, which was then thoroughly bombarded. One missile set fire to a small ammunition-wagon, and many other wagons were set ablaze. The whole scene towards nightfall was terribly picturesque amid the glare of burning vehicles, the roar of artillery, and the constant crackle of the rifles. Both sides were, as darkness fell, fairly worn out, the men sleeping where they had fought,

while the bearer-parties scoured the field of battle gathering in the wounded and the dead. On the side of the British, in this hard-fought drawn battle, over 1100 officers and men fell. One cause of the heaviness of the casualty-list was the extreme thirstiness of the men, who, when they got near the river-bank, could not be prevented from rushing down to the water and drinking without heed to the fire poured on them. At nightfall on this day, Sunday, February 18th, the position of Cronje and his men was really hopeless. The whole river on both sides, except a stretch of about a mile on each side of the laager into which the whole Boer force was cooped up, was held by the British. The enemy's position was defensible enough, as the battle had proved, being, in fact, one enormous shelter-trench with numerous short cross-trenches, and a supply of water running through it. On the other hand, escape from the position was impossible, by day or night, as the attempt would involve the crossing of open ground enclosed on all sides by a vastly superior force.

When the morning dawned on Monday, February 19th, the British and Boer forces were in the same positions. The enemy, during the night, had made entrenchments round their laager. The British infantry rested after their terribly hard day's work, but the mounted infantry and a battery started out to observe the position of some Boers, newly arrived on the scene of action, on a kopje extending far to the west and sloping gradually to the plain. A good position was seized and garrisoned by the British, the remainder of the force continuing the movement until the enemy were completely turned. On the extreme left the Boers held a farmhouse in good force, and the battery vigorously shelled the occupants. At nightfall the men returned to camp, leaving the garrison on the ridge. The British artillery was greatly strengthened during the day by the arrival of three field-batteries, three naval 4·7-inch guns, and two naval 12-pounders. More important still, Lord Roberts had appeared on the field, and, putting an end to all efforts at storming Cronje's laager, made arrangements for enforcing submission through approaches by siege-trenches and a vigorous and continuous bombardment. Before his arrival, Lord Kitchener had caused three field-batteries and the 65th Howitzer Battery to take up a position directly in front of the laager, and a terribly accurate fire was opened. The howitzers, using lyddite

freely, and dropping shell in the very bed of the river, filled the enemy's trenches with the noxious green fumes from the explosive. On Tuesday, February 20th, at early morning, the British infantry engaged the enemy in the deep river-bed, driving them back for a short distance, and in the afternoon, as no sign of surrender was made, Lord Roberts took measures to crush the obstinate foe. On the south bank he placed in position, at 2000 yards' range, three field-batteries and the two naval 12-pounders; and on the north bank, enfilading the whole river-bed, were the howitzer-battery, three field-batteries and the three naval 4·7-inch guns. Rarely, if ever, had such a number of powerful weapons concentrated their fire on a spot about a mile square. The lyddite-shells raised great clouds of green smoke, filling the river-bed, while the shrapnel burst along the edge of each bank, searching every bush and every ravine. The big naval guns were enfilading the enemy at a range of only 1000 yards, and the execution done drove the foe to such madness of wrath and despair that, from time to time, a Boer would come out of cover and try a sniping shot at the mighty weapons. On each side of the river two battalions were working Maxim-guns whose fire, whenever it could be heard amid the tumult, sounded petty beside the deafening roar of the heavy artillery scattering death from two long lines on each bank of the river. Against all, with a persistence cruel in its uselessness, and savage in its disregard of the many women and children in the laager, Cronje grimly held on. Night by night deserters crept into the British lines, declaring that they could no longer stand the fire; that there were 800 dead bodies lying along the river-bank; and that, of the wounded, they had quite lost count.

On Wednesday, February 21st, there was some fighting outside the main position, against bodies of the enemy who had come up in the vain hope of rescuing the beleaguered Cronje. Colonel Broadwood, with the 10th Hussars, 12th Lancers, and two batteries, moved out to the south-east, round the kopje known as Kitchener's Hill, while General French, with part of the 9th and the 16th Lancers, the Household Cavalry, and two batteries Royal Horse Artillery, went southwards to meet them and dislodge the enemy who were holding the hill. A strong commando of Boers was moving up to strengthen the enemy's hold on the position, which would have rendered the British retention of Paardeberg

Drift a difficult matter. As French was pushing on to capture what appeared to be three guns moving before him, which turned out to be three captured R.E. wagons, one of which he succeeded in recovering, he found himself face to face with a party of about 500 Boers. These men, dashing down at a gallop from behind a kopje, intended a surprise, but were themselves at once caught under a magazine-fire from both batteries at 900 yards' range, and the carabine-fire of the dismounted squadrons. They instantly broke and fled, coming in succession under the rifles of the Lancers, and being routed with the loss of 40 men killed, and 40 to 50 prisoners. Meanwhile, Colonel Broadwood had driven a party of about 1200 Boers from the hill, and these men, passing between the British forces there at work, and Gordon's brigade holding the kopjes on the right bank, were roughly handled by Maxim and rifle fire, and scattered in all directions.

When Lord Roberts knew of the presence of women and children in Cronje's camp, he sent word that these non-combatants would be allowed to depart in safety, but the Boer general refused to allow them to leave. The deserters who kept coming in denounced the barbarity of this conduct. Among other instances of the enemy's disregard of the ordinary usages of warfare among civilized peoples may be mentioned their frequent firing on ambulances, which rendered the carrying away of the wounded a most dangerous task, and the use of expanding bullets, many of which were found in the pockets and bandoliers of prisoners. On the night of Thursday, February 22nd, one of the greatest storms known to the old campaigners in the British force passed over the position. The lightning was almost continuous, and was attended by a deluge of rain, raising the level of the deeply-sunk river, which washed out in its flood the gullies where the Boers were lying near the bank. The night was one of bitter cold, and there was no approach to comfort until the troops in the British camp were able, when the storm had ceased, to light big fires. The enemy were being gradually more closely enveloped through the construction at night of shelter-trenches of approach by the British force, and by a rush of the Shropshires in the darkness, gaining about 200 yards of ground, on which they entrenched themselves for closer firing. The battalion had occupied the river-bed since the 18th, doing good work under a galling fire, and in their new

position they were relieved on the 22nd by the Gordons. The manner in which the relief was effected was amusing, in spite of the danger. The Highlanders crept up to the trenches on their stomachs, while the Shropshires kept down the enemy's fire, and then the retiring force crawled out over the bodies of their relievers. General French sent in, on the same day, 75 men whom he had captured, and a patrol eight miles to the west took 30 Boers whom they found wandering away, making the total number of prisoners about 460, in addition to large numbers of cattle, sheep, and trek-oxen which had wandered from the laager.

On Friday, February 23rd, much fighting took place outside the position, owing to attempts at relief made by various bodies of Boers from Natal and other quarters. One force tried to occupy three kopjes in succession, but at each the enemy found the Scottish Borderers in possession and were driven off by a hot fire. Thoroughly disconcerted by the third check, they galloped off in a state of panic until they perceived another hill which they deemed to be at their disposal. It was unoccupied when they started, but the Borderers, noting the movement, raced the mounted Boers and won, seizing the position and again driving them away. A portion of the Boer force ultimately occupied a hill which was partly flanked by the Borderers, and faced a kopje held by the Yorkshires. A vigorous fusillade ensued, and the British troops, with a cool and accurate fire, silenced the foe. Meanwhile, the Buffs, ordered to reinforce the Yorkshires, worked round the right of their kopje, where the 75th Battery was stationed, the 62nd Battery being on a farm in the centre of the Borderers' position. Vigorous shelling and rifle-fire drew no reply from the Boers on the kopje, and a company of the Yorkshires was sent to attack. A heavy fire then drove back the British, who had no cover, and the assailants opened again with their rifles, compelling attempts to escape, which were checked by the British Maxims. The Buffs, working carefully round, got within 150 yards of the foe, eighty of whom surrendered, while many got away by rushing off one at a time. The Balloon Corps, on the same day, did excellent service. The machine rose to a great height in the early morning, and discovered four ammunition wagons in the river-bed. The balloonists then indicated the position to the gunners, and within an hour the

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contents of the wagons were blown up. On Saturday, February 24th, the cordon, closing steadily and mercilessly on the doomed Cronje and his men, had been drawn very tight. On each night, on the north bank of the river, the troops had advanced from 50 to 100 yards, quickly digging a trench, from which a heavy fire was kept up during the day, so that at last the investing force was securely placed almost within pistol-shot of the Boer trenches. The Royal Engineers had been also burrowing on both banks, and east and west, towards the enemy, placing them under the fire of guns and rifles from every point of the compass.

The day of Majuba, February 27th, was at hand, and in both positions men had a feverish expectation that something decisive would then occur. During the afternoon of Monday, the 26th, four 6-inch howitzers, and three Vickers-Maxims—the vicious "pom-poms"—sent for by Lord Roberts from De Aar, arrived in camp, and a fresh bombardment was arranged. The new-come weapons had to be taken across the river to the northern bank, but the Modder was in flood, and the drifts could not be crossed. Its waters were rolling down thick with mud and laden with dead horses. With the help of a pontoon-boat, a stout wire was got across the river, the boat attached, and a ferry established. The horses were then swum across, the "pom-poms" carried in the boat, and the big guns dragged through the turbulent waters. At 5.30 the guns were in position, and a fierce bombardment began from all sides, fire being delivered from fifty guns. The terrible fusillade was maintained until dark, and then came a new enterprise. The Canadians had been ordered to approach the laager with trenches parallel to the river at the least possible distance, and in the darkness they inadvertently went within 50 yards. The enemy discovered this movement between three and four in the morning of the eventful day, Tuesday, Feb. 27th, and poured in a terrific fire by which fifty Canadians quickly fell. Their leader, deciding that it was fully as dangerous to retire as to advance, dashed forward with his men, and they all tumbled headlong into the trenches outside the mimosa bushes lining the bank. The Boers promptly "cleared", and daylight found the enemy in a hopeless position. There was already a strong party in favour of surrender, and the feat of the Canadians forced the dogged Cronje's hand. At 6 a.m. he sent in the white flag to

COMMANDANT CRONJE SURRENDERS TO LORD ROBERTS

After the relief of Kimberley by General French, and the occupation of Jacobsdal by Lord Roberts, Cronje, finding himself outflanked, quitted his trenches at Magersfontein and Spytfontein and retreated hastily eastwards. He was hotly pursued and at last overtaken with part of his force at Paardeberg. Here, on the anniversary of Majuba, he surrendered unconditionally to Lord Roberts, having doggedly held his position for a week in spite of a terrible bombardment.

R. CATON WOODVILLE, R.I.

COMMANDANT CRONJE SURRENDERS TO LORD ROBERTS.

Lord Roberts, and unconditional capitulation of the whole Boer force was soon settled. At 7 o'clock the famous Boer general appeared, with an escort of mounted infantry. He was riding an iron-gray pony, with an English saddle and holsters, and a nearly new bridle. He was dressed in a little-worn blue serge suit, with brown boots and wide-brimmed gray felt hat trimmed with a broad orange ribbon, and carried in his hand the well-known "sjambok" or whip. Close behind him rode his secretary and interpreter. The escort halted opposite head-quarters, and Cronje, dismounting, advanced between two files of Seaforths, who presented arms, towards his conqueror, Lord Roberts. General Pretyman said, "Commandant Cronje, sir." Cronje then touched his hat, the salute being returned by the British leader. Then Lord Roberts stepped forward and shook hands with the words "You have made a gallant defence, sir." Chairs were placed, and for a few minutes the two, with the interpreter's aid, were deep in conversation. The beaten man's demeanour was quiet and dignified, in his rough style, showing fortitude under inevitable misfortune, with an occasional grim smile. His disappearance to breakfast in his host's quarters closed the memorable scene.

The condition of the Boer laager was such as to appal and disgust all visitors from the British lines, whose chief wonder was that it had been possible for the beleaguered men to live under such conditions. Within a space of 100 square yards lay over forty dead horses and half a dozen carcasses of oxen. Men's bodies lay buried six inches beneath the soil. In every little shallow of the rain-swollen river were heaps of swollen carcasses of animals. Wounded men lay about uncared for, in most cases affected with gangrene, and doomed to die. There was no cause for wonder that joy at the end of the dreadful siege was displayed by the captives in every face and gesture. On all sides men were laughing and joking, with expressed hopes that they would soon get a drink of whisky. At some points captive men, with bitter tears on both sides, were parting with wives and sisters. Three British officers and nine soldiers had been prisoners in the laager during the siege, provided with deep holes for shelter under the bombardment, and kindly treated in every respect. When the order came for prisoners to cross the river to the British camp

an extraordinary scene ensued. Each man, taking with him all he could carry of personal effects in the way of pots, pans, and blankets, flung his rifle on to one of two heaps, which gradually grew to a huge height. The whole number of prisoners exceeded 4600, of whom 1150 were Free Staters, and the remainder Transvaalers. The officers captured, in addition to Piet Cronje, the general-in-chief, included Major Albrecht, German commandant of artillery, and his three lieutenants; chief-commandant Wolverans, twelve commandants, two war-commissioners, one magazine-master, six adjutants, and seventeen field-cornets. The prize of war in the form of guns was composed of four Krupp 12-pounders and two Maxims. The bulk of the prisoners ultimately accompanied Cronje to St. Helena.

An advance to Bloemfontein was the next step in Lord Roberts' brilliant, conquering campaign. When the Boer prisoners had been sent off to Cape Town, the British camp was moved four miles eastwards along the Modder, to Osfontein, for sanitary reasons, and a halt was made for a few days in order to afford a much-needed rest to the troops and horses, and to permit the arrival of convoys of food and forage. To the east, the enemy were occupying positions extending for five miles on each side of the river, busy as bees in entrenching, and with eight guns mounted on high kopjes. Occasional "sniping" at the British outposts and some skirmishes occurred. On Friday, March 2nd, messengers from the enemy arrived, asking for copies of Lord Roberts' proclamation to the Free State burghers, an evident sign of divided counsels. The horses and transport animals were at this time supplied with fresh sweet grass through frequent heavy showers, which were also of service to the troops for future advance, in filling nearly all the "dams" or reservoirs. Reconnaissances made by French's squadrons showed that the Boer position, manned by forces estimated at over 5000 men, could be easily turned in either direction, north or south. On March 4th a correspondent with the British army was able to comment on "the wonderful health depicted on the faces of our men", in spite of hard marching, hard fighting, wet and cold at night, and, for some time, half-rations, the latter due to the sudden change made in the direction of the campaign for the pursuit of Cronje and his men on a route of which every mile

took the force farther from the railway and the base of supplies. The mother of ingenuity is urgent need, and the officers and men of the mounted corps made a wholesome porridge out of the bran served for the horses, while others, grinding oats between stones, composed a rough sort of oat-cakes.

The Boers in the Free State had by this time been largely reinforced by men who had quitted Natal through events to be hereafter noted, and by Free Staters from the north-east. President Steyn was in a camp at Abraham's Kraal, a position on the Modder about half-way between Paardeberg and the Free State capital, Bloemfontein, lying away to the south-east, 30 miles south of the river. It was clear that a collision with the British forces must soon occur. On March 7th, in early morning, Lord Roberts' army advanced against the Boers. Their position extended over a long range of country in a semicircle from north-west to south-west, 4 miles north and 11 miles south of the Modder. They were posted on a large number of separate small kopjes, with a high flat hill to the north, on which guns were mounted. To the south of the river was first a rolling plain, and then another flat hill upon which the enemy were strongly entrenched. The British cavalry, under General French, left the camp at 2 a.m., followed, an hour later by the Sixth Division (Kelly-Kenny's), and the Seventh Division (Tucker's), to operate with French on the south, and by the Ninth (Colvile's) Division, for work on the north side of the river. The naval guns and howitzers kept the enemy's attention until the cavalry succeeded in turning the left flank of the Boers, reaching their rear, and opening the way for the Sixth Division, which marched on without firing a shot, and, by its mere appearance on the flank, caused the enemy to be seized with panic, so that they hurriedly evacuated all their positions, leaving behind one gun, and also quantities of forage, food, horses, tents, and clothing. There was little fighting in the affair. At one point some 9th Lancers, rounding a small kopje to reconnoitre, were attacked by a much larger party of Boers, and the British horsemen promptly retired, drawing the enemy after them into the open ground, where they were assailed by infantry-fire from our men posted unseen on a crest, and driven off with severe loss. The Boer trenches, cut deep along the whole position, mostly faced the west and south-

west, and it was the unexpected flank movement on the south-east that caused the hasty retreat. The horse-artillery, of which seven batteries attended French's Division—three brigades of cavalry and two of mounted infantry—did excellent service against the enemy's guns. At one point, a stubborn defence was made, on a kopje to the British right, whence the enemy's fire killed eighteen battery-horses, and when the flight began, the rear-guard made a bold defence, enabling their comrades, with the quickness and skill so often displayed, to hurry off wagons and guns. Their retreat was to the north and east, closely followed by French's men. The Guards Brigade, under Pole-Carew, with the Seventh and Ninth Divisions, accompanied Lord Roberts to his new head-quarters at Poplar's Drift, about 20 miles east of Osfontein, a considerable advance on the road to the Free State capital. The generals now in command of the Boer forces were De Wet and Delarey, men destined to give much trouble at a later day to British leaders. The casualties on the British side did not exceed fifty. The whole engagement, if it may be so called, was a striking example of the right method of dealing with foes who, occupying strong positions and expending great toil on entrenchments, as if British soldiers were always to be led up to slaughter in frontal attacks, found themselves outmanœuvred and driven off with the most trifling loss to their well-handled adversaries. An interesting feature of the operations near Poplar Grove was the presence on the field of Presidents Krüger and Steyn, making earnest but wholly vain efforts to rally the troops, who declared that they could not stand against the British artillery and such a formidable force of mounted men.

On the following day, March 8th, the enemy having retreated to Abraham's Kraal, south-east of Poplar Grove, and situated at the point where Kaal Spruit falls into the Modder, Lord Roberts made his preparations for a further advance. On leaving Poplar Grove, the Seventh (General Tucker's) Division, with two regiments of mounted infantry and a cavalry-brigade of the 9th and 16th Lancers, marched on the right, south towards Petrusberg. In the centre column, where the commander-in-chief moved, were Colvile's infantry (Ninth Division), Pole-Carew's Guards, and Colonel Broadwood's cavalry-brigade, composed of the 10th Hussars, 12th Lancers, and Household Cavalry, with two regi-

ments of mounted infantry. The left (easterly) column was in charge of General French, advancing along the Modder with Kelly-Kenny's (Sixth) Division and Colonel Porter's horsemen—the Scots Greys, Inniskillings, and Carabineers,—with three regiments of mounted infantry. The fighting which ensued, known as the battle of Driefontein, took place on March 10th, over country extending for many miles south of Abraham's Kraal. About 10 a.m. Broadwood's cavalry, in front of the centre column, came in contact with the enemy, who were holding a double, semi-circular line of kopjes at Driefontein, 8 miles south of Abraham's Kraal. These positions were promptly shelled, and the Boers were driven from the low ridges projecting in front, which were at once occupied by mounted infantry, who held the ground until the arrival of reinforcements. Meanwhile, Colonel Porter had also come into touch with the enemy's right, and General French diverted the whole of his infantry-division (Kelly-Kenny's) south towards the hostile positions, which they reached about one o'clock, after a march of over 20 miles. The men then attacked, with the 13th Brigade led by the Buffs, and the 18th Brigade led by the Welsh regiment. Under a hot and bewildering fire of rifles and shell the British advanced to clear the kopjes, and met with a stout and skilful resistance. The Boers held a strong, safe position, with huge boulders affording good cover, and succeeded in a smart doubling movement which enabled them to pour in a heavy enfilading fire. Artillery were needed for a successful attack, and at about two o'clock a R.H.A. battery began to shell the Boer centre. The artillerymen behaved with admirable coolness and courage. As the guns (*T* Battery) came into action, a heavy and accurate fire from a Vickers-Maxim killed two men and several horses, as the men were engaged in unhitching the gun to which they were attached. Within two minutes, however, this same weapon fired the first shot, the gunners carrying the ammunition over the bodies of their fallen comrades. Another R.H.A. battery and a field-battery came up and effectively shelled the ridge towards which the Welsh were moving, the guns being worked with the utmost coolness under a severe rifle-fire. The Welshmen, supported by the Essex and the Gloucesters, steadily advanced, showing wonderful skill in obtaining cover. At the crest of the ridge they found excellent shelter, and a heavy rifle-duel then

ensued at about 500 yards' range. The Yorks, supported by the Buffs, had occupied a kopje in the centre of the position, and gave good help in keeping down the enemy's fire, but the resistance made was very stubborn, the enemy shelling the British incessantly and maintaining a well-aimed rifle-fire. Just before dusk the Welsh troops gallantly rushed the position with the bayonet, taking a kopje, and clearing a considerable portion of the ridge, a scene witnessed by Lord Roberts through a telescope. One feature of the day's work was the splendid marching of Kelly-Kenny's Division across the veldt under a hot sun in a cloudless sky, followed by six hours' hard fighting. During this long struggle, Colonel Broadwood had tried to get round the enemy by going six miles to the south, but the horses were almost worn out with hard work, and he was at all points faced by the Boers, who moved parallel with him along the line of kopjes, and were always ready with rifle-fire and guns. Towards dusk, the centre and left columns, including Lord Roberts and his staff, arrived at a farmhouse situated in the basin formed by the semicircle of the Boer position, and a picturesque sight was presented as mass after mass of troops and transport appeared over the ridge and gradually filled the vast hollow. There can be little doubt that the appearance of a force so formidable, combined with the loss of the centre position, caused the flight of the enemy, during the night, which rendered the action at and around Driefontein a strategical success for the British arms. The Australian troops were largely engaged during the day, the 1st Australian Horse, brigaded with the Scots Greys, coming under fire with loss at 800 yards' range, as also the New South Wales Lancers with Colonel Porter's brigade. When the enemy fled, the horses of the Australians were alone able to pursue, and the N.S.W. Mounted Infantry, under Colonel Knight, and the Mounted Rifles, under Captain Antill, who were with Colonel Le Gallais' brigade, followed the fleeing Boers to the north. The British loss included 5 officers and about 60 men killed, and 14 officers and 320 men wounded. The Boers suffered mostly from the shrapnel-shells, leaving over 170 dead on the ground to be buried by the victors, and a large number of horses killed and disabled. About 20 prisoners were taken by the British troops. The strategy of Lord Roberts had again outwitted the enemy, who had

expected his march to continue along the line of the Modder, instead of being directed south-eastwards straight for Bloemfontein. Another long step forward had been taken towards the Free State capital, and on Sunday, March 11th, Lord Roberts' head-quarters were at Aasvogel Kop, east of Kaal Spruit, less than 30 miles from Bloemfontein.

The rest of the march was practically unopposed. On Monday, March 12th, the Commander-in-chief was at Ventersvlei, about 12 miles from his object, with all his divisions well up, and somewhat to the south of Bloemfontein, still following the Kaal Spruit. Most of the farms along the line of march were found deserted, with white flags flying over the houses, all valuable property removed, and many signs of hasty flight. Thirty-five thousand men were advancing in irresistible strength. After a few hours' rest at Ventersvlei, the cavalry, under General French, marched eastwards from Kaal Spruit to Leuuw Kop, where the railway, about six miles south of Bloemfontein, intersected the farm of Mr. John Steyn, brother of the President. He became a willing prisoner of the British. Mr. Palmer, a member of the Executive, was also taken, and despatched with an ultimatum to the capital. The cavalry then, after some opposition, seized the low kopjes commanding the town on the south and south-west, the enemy retiring north-east, away from Bloemfontein. A squadron of Scots Greys, moving farther east, was forced to retire at first owing to a heavy rifle-fire and intricate wire-fencing, but they ultimately seized the hills on the east, thus completing the command of the town. The authorities there quickly understood the position of affairs, and, on the suggestion of two newspaper-correspondents (of the *Daily News* and *Sydney Herald*) who had galloped forward and entered the town, Mr. Fraser, a member of the Executive, Mr. Collins, the Acting State-Secretary, Mr. Kellner, the Mayor, the Landdrost, and other officials, drove out in carriages to tender submission and the keys of the government buildings. The party, half-way out, met Lieutenant Chester-Masters, with three Rimington scouts, and he was the first British officer to make his entry. As the plain was crossed towards the kopjes where the British guns were stationed, the cavalry were seen closing in round the town like a huge net. It was about 11 o'clock on the morning of

Tuesday, March 13th, that the deputation reached the kopje where Lord Roberts was standing. The carriages halted, and the correspondent of the *Daily News* rode up the hill, announcing to the victorious leader the surrender of Bloemfontein. A picturesque scene was beheld when the State-officials, climbing the hill, approached the British leader, who went forward to meet them. A few yards away the guns of *T* Battery, R.H.A. were pointing towards the late Boer position, while the zinc roofs of the town shone in the distance. The deputation arrived in front of Lord Roberts with respectful salutations, and one of the party, declaring the surrender of the town, and tendering the keys, asked protection for the lives and property of the inhabitants. Lord Roberts accorded this boon, on condition of no further opposition being offered. The interview was of a most cordial character, without any restraint on the part of the surrendering officials. The British leader announced his intention of entering the capital in state, and the deputation retired to make due preparations for the ceremony.

When the needful military dispositions had been made, Lord Roberts and his staff, with the military Attachés, descended the kopje, and waiting for the approach of the First Brigade of cavalry, who were ordered to take possession of the town, advanced across the plain with the British commander and his personal staff in front, followed by the general Staff and the foreign Attachés. The cavalcade, a mile in length, descended the southern slopes alongside the railway, and entered the city at 1 p.m. Mr. Collins, the Free State Secretary, met Lord Roberts, and conducted him to the government buildings in the market square, amid bright looks, fluttering handkerchiefs and flags, and wild cheers from a population of whom a large number are British or of British origin. At the Parliament House the general took formal possession of the town in the name of the Queen. Then, after inspecting the statue of President Brand, he crossed the little river, and entered the front garden of the residence of President Steyn, who had, we may note, fled at midnight to set up a new "capital" at Kroonstad, on the railway about 120 miles north. At this moment the great crowd outside suddenly started "God Save the Queen" and sang it throughout with marvellous energy, everyone standing rigid, and the civilians

LORD ROBERTS AND OTHER BRITISH GENERALS

This plate shows Lord Roberts, the commander-in-chief, and some of the Generals who took a prominent part in the South African campaign—Lord Kitchener, the chief of the staff; General French, the distinguished cavalry leader; General Baden-Powell, the heroic defender of Mafeking; General Macdonald, appointed after the death of General Wauchope to command the gallant Highland Brigade; and Generals Rundle and Pole-Carew, who did such valuable service against the guerrilla bands of Boers in the Free State.

General Pole-Carew

Lord Kitchener

Bassano

General French

Lambert, Weston & Son

1899.

SOUTH

1900

Lord Roberts

Russell & Sons

1899.

AFRICA

1900

General Rundle

Lambert, Weston & Son

General Baden-Powell

Elliott & Fry

General Macdonald

Lafayette

LORD ROBERTS AND OTHER BRITISH GENERALS.

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raising their hats. After a burst of cheering, Captain Lord George Scott, following Lord Roberts, and bearing a silken Union Jack, worked by Lady Roberts, with a four-leafed shamrock embroidered in one corner, was aided by Commander the Hon. S. J. Fortescue, R.N. in bending the flag to the halyard, and, amid renewed cheers, the British flag was run up over Bloemfontein. A memorable scene followed this demonstration of the grand success due to brilliant strategy, and to endurance, discipline, and devoted zeal in the troops, never surpassed in the history of war. Half a troop of cavalry was facing the Presidency gates. The crowd, as they turned round after watching the hoisting of the flag, appeared instantly struck by the aspect of the begrimed, unshaven faces of the troopers clad in soiled, patched khaki uniforms, brave and hardy men of war as ever were seen. On the impulse of the moment they roared forth the song "Tommy Atkins", and then gave out "Soldiers of the Queen", causing the stolid faces of the men, as they sat bolt upright on their horses, to relax at such a tribute of admiration.

When the ceremonial proceedings were finished, Lord Roberts, ordering measures for the protection of the town, and making certain military dispositions, appointed General Pretyman "Governor of Bloemfontein" with full powers. A visit was then made to the jail, where four men, imprisoned for refusing to fight against the British, were at once released. The plain outside the town was filling with battalions of infantry, and with the immense transport-train necessary for the supply of the force. As the masses of men, wagons, and animals came from behind the ridges, the distant spectator seemed to behold water rolling slowly onwards in an irresistible wave. Then out of chaos emerged order as each brigade, with its transport, settled itself in its own lines running regular and straight for miles. From a high hill near the town could be seen in the far distance a long huge serpent representing battalion after battalion on the march for the conquered town. On the evening of the day of occupation, good service was rendered by Major Hunter Weston who, with a handful of men, made his way round to the north of the town and cut the railway, capturing many locomotives, and intercepting General Joubert, who was coming south. On March 14th, amid the cheers of the people, the Sixth Division (Kelly-Kenny's), in

fine campaigning order after heat and cold, rain and drought, marched through the town, every man looking what he was, a fighting soldier in every fibre of his frame. Some of the battalions had a few pipers playing merry tunes. Others were preceded by buglers shrilly blowing instruments which showed signs of the wear and tear of war. The great majority were bearded men; all were browned by the African sun, and marched with the swing peculiar to men who have accomplished a difficult task ending in victory. The gallant Welshmen, who had been somewhat thinned in the last two engagements, were headed by the regimental goat, which looked thriving on the hard fare of the campaign. Many by-standers rushed out to shake hands with the men, distributing cigarettes, tobacco, and loaves. The Artillery had a warm greeting, as they went by with the guns dragged by war-worn horses. The interest and sympathy of the crowd were aroused as the comrades of the marching troops, acting as Military Police and keeping the route clear, shouted enquiries concerning wounded friends. Lord Roberts afterwards inspected the Guards Brigade, and praised their fine march of 38 miles in 28 hours. After saying that through a mistake he had not been able to march into Bloemfontein at their head, as he intended, he concluded with the words, "I promise you I will lead you into Pretoria". On the following day, March 15th, three battalions of the Guards marched through the town, presenting a magnificent appearance. On the same day, General Pole-Carew, with 2000 of the Guards, two guns, and a small body of mounted infantry, left by train to join hands with Gatacre and Clements in the south of the Orange State, meeting General Clements at Springfontein. Many hundreds of the Free State burghers had surrendered themselves, and it was believed that the Orange State was thoroughly subdued, a notion which, as will be seen, events were to prove mistaken.

Before leaving Lord Roberts and his victorious army to the long halt at Bloemfontein necessitated by the lack of supplies and, especially, of remounts, we must quote the remarkable army-order issued on March 14th by the Commander-in-chief. "On February 12th this force crossed the boundary of the Free State; three days later Kimberley was relieved; on the fifteenth day the bulk of the Boer army, under one of its most trusted

generals, was made prisoner; on the seventeenth day, news came of the relief of Ladysmith; and on March 13th, twenty-nine days from the commencement of the operations, the capital of the Free State was occupied. This is a record of which any army would be proud—a record which could not have been achieved except by earnest, well-disciplined men, determined to do their duty whatever the difficulties and dangers. Exposed to the extreme heat of the day, bivouacking under heavy rain, marching long distances, often on reduced rations, all ranks have displayed an endurance, cheerfulness, and gallantry which is beyond all praise." Sure we are that these words, addressed to British soldiers by a leader who had deservedly won from his men, in his long and brilliant career, the highest admiration and the deepest affection ever accorded to a British general, find an echo in the minds and hearts of their countrymen. Those stirring words, "the relief of Ladysmith", an event largely due to the strategy of Lord Roberts, through the diversion caused by his invasion of the Orange River State, direct us to the next portion of our narrative, the siege of the Natal town after January 1st, 1900, and the great operations of war conducted by General Buller, which culminated in the deliverance of the heroic Sir George White and the splendid force under his command.

On the morning of Monday, January 8th, 1900, the British public at home and the loyal subjects of the Queen in all parts of the empire, were made anxious by the terms of heliograph messages transmitted from Ladysmith to General Buller. Sir George White, in briefest words, reported an attack as begun on the morning of Saturday, January 6th. Successive signals gave "Attack in considerable force"; "Everywhere repulsed, but fighting continues"; "Attack continues, and enemy reinforced from south"; and finally, at 3.15 p.m. on the same day, "Attack renewed; very hard pressed". Then the sun was obscured, and all intelligence ceased. On the following morning, January 9th, came the joyful tidings of complete victory in a fierce encounter of 17 hours' duration, with a few intervals for bringing up fresh forces, renewing supplies of ammunition, and taking breath, on both sides, for renewed efforts of valour and skill. The messages of Sir George White gave the bare outline of the most sanguinary and desperate engagement during the siege; the most resolute,

skilful, and persistent offensive operation ever undertaken by a Boer force. The enemy had made a most determined attempt to bring the siege of Ladysmith to an end by storming the British defences. Before describing this battle in detail, we shall make matters clearer by a description of the British and Boer positions.

The interior British lines at Ladysmith formed an oval stretching over ten miles from north-west to south-east, enclosed on the west, south, and east by the much-curving Klip River, and on the north and north-east by the railway running north-westwards to Harrismith. The armed positions in the oval, which varies in width from two to six miles, being broadest in the north and centre, were solely on the north side. Taking them from west to east, first came King's Post Hill, a detached signal-station held by the King's Royal Rifles. Due east of that, Cove Hill was occupied by the Rifle Brigade, with a redoubt, and, at the eastern end, a battery armed with one 4.7-inch naval gun. Eastwards again came Junction Hill, held by the Leicesters and a naval quick-firing 12-pounder. Most easterly of all, bringing us up to and beyond the railway, and so taking in some ground outside the oval, were Tunnel Hill, Cemetery Hill, and Helpmakaar Hill, defended by a naval battery in a redoubt, a 4.7-inch gun, a field-battery, two companies of Gloucesters, the Liverpool Regiment, and the 1st Devons. Outside the oval again, to the north of Tunnel Hill, an unnamed kopje was also held by our troops. The other outer defences of the British were, on the west, just beyond Klip River, a detached signal-station called Rifleman's Post, held by the King's Royal Rifles; south of that, Rifleman's Ridge, in charge of men of the same battalion; southwards again, Range Post Ridge, defended by two companies of the Royal Irish Fusiliers. On the south side, beyond the river, lay hilly and woody ground, not held by troops, the defensive positions being farther out, from two to three miles from the Klip. It is these positions which demand particular notice, as being the main scene of the action to be described. The line of defence in this quarter was nearly four miles in length, slightly curved in its course due east and west, with the convex side on the outer edge, southwards, near to the Boer lines. In the centre lies Cæsar's Camp, a broad plateau about 800 feet above the level of Ladysmith, with a steep

outer slope forming a huge grassy glacis. To the west, practically a continuation of Cæsar's Camp, lie Wagon Hill and Wagon Hill West, two smaller plateaus connected by lower saddles. East of Cæsar's Camp, and joining that position, is the hill called Maiden's Castle, reaching close to the river, before its bend to the north. In front of Cæsar's Camp and Maiden's Castle lies ground three miles in length by two in breadth, undulating, open, and in parts occupied by trees and scrub, affording cover for the thousands of Boers who lay ready to take advantage of success in the attack on the southern British positions at Wagon Hills and Cæsar's Camp. Wagon Hill West was held by two squadrons of the Imperial Light Horse; Wagon Hill by half a battalion of the 60th (King's Royal) Rifles; and Cæsar's Camp by the Manchester Regiment, with a field-battery and a naval 12-pounder gun. The ends of Wagon Hills are very steep and difficult, affording good cover of boulders and bits of sheer ascent for an assaulting column.

The Boer positions on the north were Surprise Hill, mounting two howitzers; Rietfontein, better known as Pepworth, Hill, with "Long Tom" at its eastern end, and General Joubert's headquarters in the rear, to the north; Limit Hill, with two guns; and Lombard's Kop, with two heavy pieces of artillery. On the east, the enemy had, south of Lombard's Kop, among the scrub on low ground, two guns, one on each side of the high road to Helpmakaar; southwards again, the long Bulwaan Hill, bearing, among other heavy guns, that known as "Puffing Billy", posted nearly five miles from Ladysmith. On the west side, from three to four miles away from the river, there were guns on Thornhill's Kopje, to the north, and on Telegraph Hill, to the south. On the south side, completing the circle of investment, were Middle Hill, with two guns facing Wagon Hill West, and a long range of unnamed positions, carrying some guns and facing Cæsar's Camp and Maiden's Castle.

In describing the occurrences of this memorable day, January 6th, we shall deal first with the Boer attack on Wagon Hills. The British commander had resolved to place a 4.7 naval gun on Wagon Hill, and at early morning a working party of the Royal Engineers and a small body of blue-jackets from the *Powerful*, with half a company of Gordon Highlanders to assist,

were engaged in hauling up the different pieces of the gun and carriage. The presence of the working-party was most fortunate, in adding 60 rifles to the defence of the post. Long before dawn, a Free State force, consisting of over 500 picked marksmen of the Harrismith commando, were gathered in a spruit, a dry stream-bed running past the foot of the position, where they had surprised an outlying picket of the Imperial Light Horse, consisting of four men, two of whom were killed and the others wounded. The Boers then split up into two columns, taking off boots and even rubber-soled canvas shoes, many of which were afterwards found lying in pairs at the foot of the hill. One body, under De Villiers and Van Wyk, commandant of Harrismith, began the steep ascent of Wagon Hill West; the other men went up the almost sheer slopes of Wagon Hill, making for the nek joining the two hills, so as to cut off the men in the western post. Cleverly planned, and silently executed, the attack was a complete surprise for the British. As De Villiers' men crept up the hill-side, Lieutenant Mathias, of the Imperial Light Horse, was going down to visit his posts, and suddenly found himself in the midst of the enemy. From the likeness of his cap to their own, the Boers mistook him for one of themselves, and he had the presence of mind to turn and climb upwards with them. When he was a few yards from his own picket, he rushed forward and gave the alarm, but the enemy were already rushing up the last part of the ascent. It was about half-past 2 a.m., and pitch dark, when the British picket was driven in, and in a moment all was confusion on the summit of the hill. The working-party of the Gordons rushed for their weapons, which they had left at the nek. The sappers were formed up in some kind of order behind the gun épaulement under Lieutenants Digby-Jones and Denniss. After a few moments of wild firing on both sides, the mixed defenders were driven over the reverse, and much of Wagon Hill West was in possession of the Boers. Firing then opened along the eastern nek, showing that the Boers had forced the breastworks of the outlying pickets of the 60th Rifles on Wagon Hill. There was a Hotchkiss on the top of the western hill, but the Naval Volunteers, after half-a-dozen random rounds, were forced to retire from the gun-pit, hauling the weapon with them. The British driven from the summit of Wagon Hill West were huddled together in

the dip of the connecting saddle or nek, all being strangers to the ground, and firing blindly into each other and into the darkness. Lieutenant Macnaghten, of the Scots Fusiliers, in command of the Gordon working-party, mustered as many of his Highlanders as could be found, and shouted for someone who knew the ground. A trooper of the Light Horse volunteered to lead him to the crest-line, where a few sangars, or stone breastworks, were dotted about, and they clambered up amid the hissing of Mauser bullets, with men in felt hats firing from every side on the party. Macnaghten stumbled across a breastwork full of prostrate men, over a dozen huddled together, all wounded except three, Lieutenant Mac Gregor, the other officer of the party of Gordons, being seriously hurt. The hill-top was alight with rifle-flashes, but it was impossible to distinguish friend from foe, and Macnaghten, gathering his unwounded Highlanders, made the little group lie still with fixed bayonets until they were surrounded by the enemy. A big Boer shouted in English, "Hands up!" and, with only three sound and thirteen wounded men, the British officer could do nothing but surrender, he and his men being taken by the Boers below the crest-line. The Imperial Light Horse, who knew the ground, made a splendid stand from the first under Major Doveton, Captains Codrington and De Rothe, and Lieutenants Webb, Pakeman, Campbell, Adams, and Richardson. Their dead and maimed men covered the ground, but, knowing from the first that they were hopelessly outnumbered, these gallant troops maintained the fight as coolly as if they were at target-practice. Out of the party of Royal Engineers—thirty in all—two officers were killed and fifteen men wounded. The Imperial Light Horse on the position were almost annihilated, and the enemy had won the crest-line of Wagon Hill.

Colonel Ian Hamilton, commanding this section of the defences, had by this time ridden out with his staff, accompanied by Major Rhodes, and, seeing the state of affairs, he telephoned down for reinforcements. The first to arrive were two and a half companies of Gordon Highlanders from a post at the northern foot of Cæsar's Camp. One company under Captain Carnegie was despatched to Cæsar's Camp, the operations at which will be hereafter noticed, and the remaining company and a half, under Major Miller-Wallnutt, hastened to Wagon Hill. The

remaining two squadrons of Imperial Light Horse also dashed off to the same position, which they reached not a moment too soon. They were followed by half of the 1st Battalion 60th Rifles, while the 21st Field Battery was sent out to cover the approaches to Wagon Hill on the west, and the 53rd Battery, which was destined to render the most valuable service, took up a position in the jungle of scrub covering the southern slope of Cæsar's Camp. The few surviving blue-jackets, Gordons, Imperial Light Horse, and Engineers, under Lieutenant Digby-Jones, R.E., were still holding their ground bravely on the extreme westerly crest of Wagon Hill. The Boers, having effected a lodgment on the plateau and on the nek joining the position with Wagon Hill West, were lying, some on the reverse side of our sangars, others among the stones on the ridge, within point-blank range of the small British force on two sides, while beyond the crest, and down into the valley on the south, hundreds of the enemy were waiting for the first sign of panic among the British to rush the position. They were, however, held in check by a company of the 60th Rifles and a few Light Horse occupying a small stone breastwork on that side. The ridge, was, moreover, being shelled by the enemy's guns from Blaauwbank, to the north-west, and from Middle Hill, at short range due west, with such accuracy that many of the British were wounded by that fire, but not a Boer was hit, though the fighting-lines were less than a hundred yards apart. In reply to these hostile guns, the 21st Field Battery, out in fairly open ground beyond Range Post, to the north, swept with shrapnel the slopes and hollows of the north side of hills to the west of Wagon Hill West, and the 42nd Battery searched the reverse slopes, smiting the head of a movement by which the foe sought to strengthen their attack. The Natal guns were doing like good service, and a British naval 12-pounder played upon the Boer gun at Middle Hill, striving by rapid and accurate fire to silence the big Creusot, or to baffle its aim.

When the reinforcements reached Wagon Hill, cross-fires were coming from every direction, and to show a head was to court instant death. Boer and Britisher were at one point barely thirty yards apart. Wagon Hill West was clear save for a wagon and its team, loaded with the timber foundation for a gun-carriage.

The British were all huddled in groups along the inside, or northern, slope of the hill. The enemy, in like fashion, held the outer slope, the plateau itself being so swept with fire that not a man on either side dare show upon it. The Boers that were holding the slope were, however, pushing more men up the waterway by which they had come up to the nek, and their strengthened fire-line was sorely pressing the remnant of Imperial Light Horse and some stragglers of the 60th Rifles. The two fresh squadrons of dismounted Light Horse had thus arrived at a most critical time. The reinforcement was unable to move the Boers, who were men of deadly marksmanship, striking down at this time the colonel, two majors, and four other officers of the Light Horse. If the position were lost, Wagon Hill would have become untenable, and Cæsar's Camp, enfiladed thence, could not be held. No infantry-fire could, as it seemed, dislodge the foe. It was scarcely possible to see them and live, and a rush to close quarters meant passing over 60 yards of open ground. Major Mackworth, attached to the 60th Rifles, made the attempt with a few men, and fell at once shot through the head, the effort failing from the fall of most of the party. Captain Codrington, of the 11th Hussars, commanding a squadron of the Light Horse, went forward to find some cover. At thirty yards' distance he fell, having just strength to wave back the men about to follow. Lieutenant Todd, attached to the 60th, darted forward with a dozen men, but was shot dead three yards from cover, while seven of the party were disabled. After this, it was no matter for surprise that men could not be induced to face the fire, and the battle became slack, while news went round that the whole of the position, including Cæsar's Camp, was clear of the foe except the party ensconced on Wagon Hill. It was then resolved by the British leaders to wait until dark before attempting to clear out the Boers with the bayonet. The information thus sent round was not correct, but for the time being it was believed and acted upon.

We must now turn back to the west end of Wagon Hill, where we left Lieutenant Digby-Jones, R.E., the only officer present, holding the ground with some mixed troops, until he was reinforced by the Gordon Highlanders under Major Miller-Wallnutt, and by two companies of the 60th Rifles despatched by Colonel Gore-Browne.

A portion of the plateau and crest-line was then regained, and about 10 a.m. the firing considerably slackened, every man continuing to lie as he was, under cover. Hundreds of mounted Boers could be seen moving in the plain to the west, but they were held at bay by the 21st Field Battery and the 18th Hussars. The battery was exposed to the fire of five hostile guns, and lost four team-horses killed and eleven wounded. The heavy gun on Bulwaan kept up its fire, discharging in all above a hundred rounds, and dividing its favours between the 53rd Battery and Cæsar's Camp, while three field-pieces raked Wagon Hill with common shell or burst shrapnel over the crest-line. A little after 11 o'clock the British on Wagon Hill were strengthened by three companies of the Devonshires under Colonel Park. They joined the two companies of the 60th Rifles, and the ground was held firmly until about two o'clock, when a momentary panic arose among the forward line of Rifles and Highlanders through the sudden appearance of a few Boers above the crest-line on Wagon Hill West. The British troops recoiled with a suddenness that caused some confusion among the supports. There were only eight of the enemy who reached the brow of the hill, and of these only two had courage to rush on. De Villiers, the commandant, and one of his followers, made a dash for the gun-épaulement, and Major Miller-Wallnutt, the only officer there, and a sapper were shot dead at the gun-pit. The sappers hard by stood firm with fixed bayonets, and Lieutenant Digby-Jones, R.E., leading them forward, shot De Villiers, and fell himself a moment later with a bullet through his brain. Six brave men lay dead or disabled on the ground, including middle-aged farmers who, without support, had faced a hundred men, and the gallant British lad who had sacrificed his own life to save the position. Colonel Hamilton, who was just below the crest at this time, at once sent down and ordered up a dismounted squadron of the 18th Hussars. The plateau was then reoccupied. Our losses had been very heavy, and it was impossible in most cases to reach the wounded. As Lieutenant Denniss, R.E., went to the crest-line to search for his colleague, Digby-Jones, he was shot dead, and fell beside his brother-officer.

Shortly after 4 p.m., the rain which had been threatening all day came down in a flood extraordinary even for South Africa,

and the enemy chose this time for another desperate attempt to force the position. The Rifles and Highlanders on Wagon Hill West again came back with a sudden rush, amid cries of "Retire", but Major Rice pushed forward some sappers, and a subaltern quickly rallied the broken men, who faced round and charged with levelled bayonets, sending the Boers headlong down the slopes. At Wagon Hill, under cover of the rain, the Boers were also preparing another fierce attack, and Colonel Hamilton saw that they must be dislodged at all hazards or cost. He sent for Colonel Park and asked him if the Devons could clear the plateau. "We will try", was the colonel's answer. The three companies shook themselves into loose order and swarmed forward for a first rush across the zone of Boer fire, F Company leading, under Lieutenant Field, followed by Captain Lafone's and Lieutenant Masterson's men. There were sixty yards of ground to cross, and a hundred Boer magazine-rifles waiting to sweep it with a deadly fire. Three lines of bayonets showed on the hill-side. The colonel rose to his feet, and the men, with a cheer, dashed into the open. The fire which met them was staggering. The Boers, leaving the cover of the stones, stood upright and poured forth bullets in unceasing hail. The Devons, falling fast, never wavered, and as the steel went nearer, the enemy fled back from the boulders, turning at bay on the edge of the crest in a last effort to stay the charge. Fresh men reached them from below, but the advancing bayonets made the shooting become wild, and the Devons, bearing down, drove the Boers headlong away, not attempting to rally in the spruit at the foot of the hill, but leaving British prisoners and ammunition behind, and making their way with all speed, bare-footed, to their horses. Thus did the Devons clear Wagon Hill, the price paid for victory in the final rush being the deaths of Captain Lafone, and Lieutenants Field and Walker, with Lieutenant Masterson wounded, and 15 men killed and 40 disabled. The only officer untouched was Colonel Park.

The Boer attack on Cæsar's Camp was entrusted to Transvaalers of the Heidelberg commando from the town and district in the south of their state. Their laager was situated behind Bulwaan Hill and Lombard's Kop, at a distance of about six miles from the scene of action. The four hundred men, choice

warriors for marksmanship, experience, and mature years, who were to make the assault, arrived, just before nightfall on January 5th, at some low kopjes overlooking Bester's Farm, near the south-west corner of the position to be attacked. At 1 a.m. on the next morning they moved down off the kopjes and pushed along the nullahs in perfect silence until they reached the spruit at the foot of the hill. There they divided into two parties and removed their boots. One body worked round to the south-east end of the hill, the other making an ascent at the point nearest to the spruit. The Boer assaulting-party on the right reached, without discovery, half-way up Cæsar's Camp, a shelving plateau covered with bush, and then began to push up the steep slope leading to the main plateau, being now in more extended formation. Here, as at the Wagon Hills, the British were completely surprised. The pickets of the Manchester battalion were practically destroyed, but, after occupying their breastworks, the enemy instead of pushing forward, began to return the fire of the inlying pickets, which were now fully on the alert. It thus came to pass that a squadron of the Natal Mounted Volunteers and the company of Gordon Highlanders before mentioned were able to reinforce the Manchesters before the enemy's attack became serious. When the gravity of the matter was understood, further assistance came from the Gordon Highlanders—who had four companies encamped in the town—and four companies of the Rifle Brigade arrived from King's Post. A squadron of the Natal Carabineers was ordered out to support the picket of Mounted Rifles and Natal Police, on the plain between Cæsar's Camp and the town, and as soon as this reinforcement had cleared the bush the 53rd Field Battery was sent to the same flank. This little force rendered most valuable service in preventing the enemy's second line from intervening between Cæsar's Camp and Ladysmith, and thus virtually confined the assault on the hill to one slope.

As soon as day dawned, the company of Gordons which first arrived was pushed forward along the lower crest-line to see what had become of the outlying Manchester pickets. Captain Carnegie, placing half the company under his colour-sergeant, advanced cautiously, in the dim light, with the other men. He met Lieutenant Hunt-Grubbe, of the Manchester battalion, and

that officer volunteered to go forward. Thirty yards away from the Gordons he disappeared, and Carnegie then saw figures in felt hats moving against the sky. Knowing them for Boers, he ordered a volley and rushed for the sangars. The Boers stood up to meet the charge, firing point-blank at the advancing Highlanders, but they were driven off with heavy loss. Captain Carnegie shot four of the foe with his carabine, and was himself severely wounded, his men losing 1 killed and 10 disabled in thus clearing the front of the plateau. The escape of Lieutenant Hunt-Grubbe was remarkable. Seeing figures in the sangar, and supposing them to belong to the Manchester pickets which he was seeking, he called out for the sergeant. "Yes, here I am", was the reply in English, and in a moment he was surrounded and made prisoner, but was left behind by the Boers in their hasty flight, with a bullet through his cap from the fire of the Gordons in their advance. The enemy, swept from the plateau, held firmly to the reverse slope, having excellent cover. The left (western) assaulting column of the enemy had, meanwhile, effected a lodgment on the ground, but was kept back by the Manchesters and a field-battery. The 53rd Field Battery was doing great execution from below, under partial cover of the bushes skirting the river. Major Abdy, the commanding officer, sent shrapnel at 2200 yards' range bursting over the line of the Boers' right (eastern) ascent to Cæsar's Camp, sweeping the bush-covered plateau which shelved out from the main hill, and tearing from end to end the whole slope where the enemy's reserves were gathering. The aim of the British gunners was so admirable that, as the Gordons advanced, after having won the crest-line, the shrapnel from the friendly guns below was bursting only thirty yards in their front. The British battery soon attracted the notice of the Boer gunners on Bulwaan and Lombard's Kop, and for two hours the men, guns, and wagons were swept by fire from the 6-inch Creusot gun and its auxiliary 15-pounders. Shell after shell burst amongst the guns, and splinters constantly hit the men and weapons, but no piece was put out of action, and the fire was maintained without cessation. As a sergeant sat on the trail of his gun, a shell carried away his left arm and leg, but he shouted out words of cheer to his comrades as he was borne away waving his only arm.

Colonel Dick-Cunyngham advanced with three companies of Gordon Highlanders from their camp in the plain to take in flank the Boers at the eastern end of the position. He had scarcely ridden two hundred yards before he fell mortally wounded by a stray bullet, and the Gordons marched on, leaving behind them the intrepid and beloved leader whom every man would have cheerfully followed into the most dangerous scene of action. The Highlanders and the Rifle Brigade men were then kept for some hours lying under cover on the inner or northern slope of the hill. Then the four companies of the Rifle Brigade were pushed on, and came into the firing line on the left of Carnegie's company of the Gordons. *A* Company of the Gordons, under Captain Macready, was then worked into the centre of the line, and, pressing forward, was able to occupy some ground affording an excellent field of fire. When the fighting was over, 43 dead Boers were found in their front, while the Gordons who inflicted this punishment had suffered only a trifling loss. After an hour of severe skirmishing, in which many British officers were disabled, the firing slackened, and it seemed that the Boers had been dislodged, when the thunder-storm burst, and the enemy, as at Wagon Hill, rallied for one more desperate effort. For a few minutes they were able to make some way, and then the British fire hurled them back again over the crest, and a rout ensued, in which the foe threw themselves headlong down the steep incline. Their reserves waiting in the nullahs at the foot of the hill streamed away, and a British battery searched the bush with a withering fire of shrapnel. The dismounted Volunteers shot the fugitives down in the open, and from the hill-slopes the British infantry smote them with such effect as Boers had never yet known. By nightfall the firing had ceased, and after seventeen hours of continued battle Cæsar's Camp, as well as Wagon Hill, was clear of the enemy. Some comparatively feeble attempts had been made on other parts of the British lines. The Pretoria commando, supported by a heavy fire from the Boer guns on Surprise Hill and Telegraph Hill, attempted to close with our northern breastworks, but the only British loss was three men of the Devons shot through the loopholes, while nine dead Boers were delivered to their friends on the following day from the front of the position.

The Boer attack, made with the best and bravest men in the laagers round Ladysmith, thus finally and decisively failed, in spite of all the advantage of a night-surprise, and of a fierce energy which, at one or two points, placed them, as it seemed, within an inch of success. Hoping to achieve a new Majuba on a far greater scale, they had been hurled back by a courage and determination superior to their own, and so handled as to deter their commanders from any like attempt, and to compel them to trust to the wasting effects of starvation and disease. The price paid by the British for victory was heavy, the close fighting being the cause of the large proportion of men slain on the spot. Fourteen officers were killed and 33 wounded, while the non-commissioned officers and men killed were 167, and the wounded 284. In addition to the officers already noted as killed, the army had to deplore the death of Lord Ava, mortally wounded at Wagon Hill among men who had shared with him the risks of Elandslaagte and Gun Hill. Of the Boer losses nothing could be certainly known beyond the fact that they were very heavy. The enemy spent not only the whole of Sunday, but a part of Monday, in searching for their dead, who certainly far exceeded 200, the number counted by correspondents and others who inspected a part of the battle-field on the following day. On Sunday, January 7th, a solemn service of thanksgiving was held in the Anglican Church. There was a crowded congregation, chiefly military, which included Sir George White and Sir Archibald Hunter, with Colonel Ian Hamilton and officers of the staff. Archdeacon Barker, in an eloquent discourse, justly declared that the British army had again demonstrated its possession of all the old qualities which had made it famous in the history of the world. At the conclusion of the sermon, General White and the other chief officers, on the archdeacon's invitation, advanced to the altar-rails and there stood during the chanting of a *Te Deum.* The impressive service ended in the singing of "God Save the Queen" by the whole congregation. On January 10th, much enthusiasm was aroused by the reception of a message from the Queen thanking the troops for their gallant defence.

The beleaguered garrison, in their lengthy trial of endurance and courage, were destined to suffer severely from the attacks of disease following many weeks of days and nights passed in the trenches under drenching rain or the fierce rays of the sun.

Enteric fever and dysentery made havoc among the troops. The lists of sick and the death-returns grew daily more terrible, while rations had to be reduced, and all within the British lines, soldiers and civilians alike, looked eagerly for relief at the hands of Sir Redvers Buller. Again and again they were to suffer the pangs of disappointment when the sound of the guns of the relieving force, after coming nearer and nearer, at last died away. The bombardment was renewed with vigour, but the beleaguered people paid little heed to the roar or the shells of hostile artillery in their anxious listening for the more distant boom which indicated, from time to time, an advance of their countrymen from the south. On January 18th, Kaffir runners reported the crossing of the Tugela at drifts south-west of Ladysmith. On several following days, Buller's guns were plainly heard, and his shells could be seen bursting at little more than twelve miles away. On January 24th, his batteries were shelling the range including the famous Spion Kop, soon to be seen in this record, and Boers were descried hurrying down from the top of that hill, while wagons trekked from laagers across the plain towards Van Reenen's Pass. Their return was a clear indication that another attempt of the British general had failed. A general feeling of depression came over Ladysmith, aggravated by a deluge of rain which caused, in the heat of midsummer, mephitic vapours to arise. Tea, sugar, coffee, and the like were becoming rare luxuries; vegetables had been long exhausted, and a daily ration of vinegar was served out to every soldier as a precaution against scurvy. On February 3rd, horse-flesh was served out both for troops and civilians, and a factory had been set up for the conversion of it into extract of meat under the inviting and ingenious name of "Chevril", for use in the hospitals, where Liebig and Bovril were now wanting. On February 5th and the two following days, Buller's guns were again heard away to the south-west, and a Boer magazine was seen to be blown up. A hundred days of siege had passed away, and, in the early morning of February 9th, night was rent by the sudden glare of a search-light from Bulwaan, and shells came screaming over the town. The enemy were rejoicing over the failure of Buller's third attempt to force his way through their position on the Tugela. Eggs were at this time costing 36*s.* a dozen; a small fowl was at 18*s.* 6*d.*, a tin of jam 12*s.* 6*d.*, a tin of

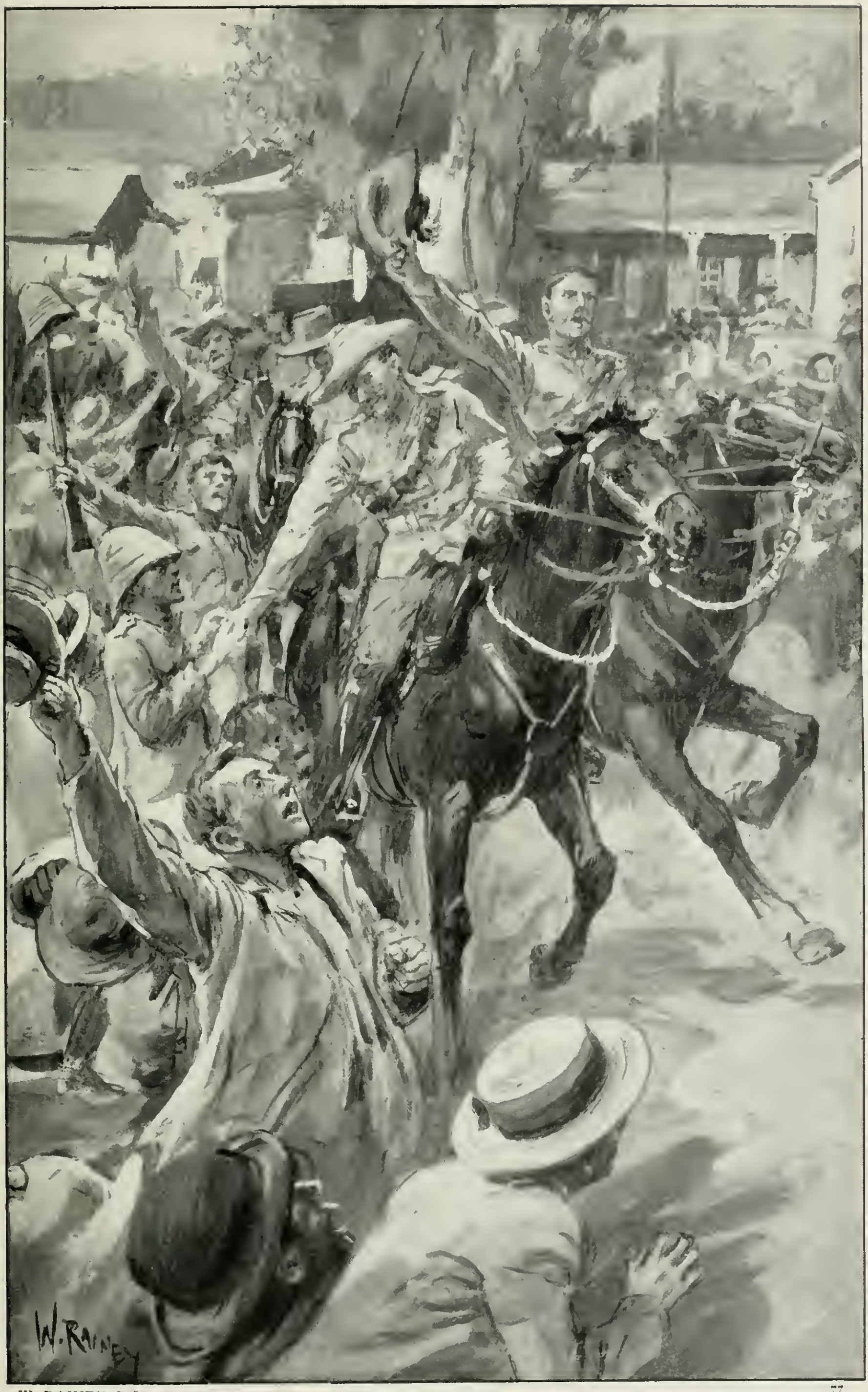
milk 7*s.* 6*d.*, a box of sardines 3*s.*, tobacco £4, 10*s.* per lb., and a dozen-case of whisky, put up to raffle, fetched £145. On February 13th, the heliograph sent the good tidings that Lord Roberts had entered the Free State in force, and then, for the first time, a real hope of success for Buller's strenuous efforts arose.

On Friday, February 16th, when the roar of artillery had been heard for four successive days southward and westward along the Tugela, and lyddite shells had been seen bursting on Boer positions, news arrived of General Buller's success in the capture of Cingolo Hill, and from Cæsar's Camp British infantry could be seen crowning the nearer ridge of Monte Cristo, coming up in column, and deploying with a steadiness that showed them to be masters of the position. Four days later, the Boers were clearly preparing for flight, and hope began to beat high in the town. The ration of horse-flesh ceased, and the soldiers were gladdened by the issue of an extra half-pound of meat, five biscuits instead of one and a quarter, and a few additional ounces of mealie (maize) meal. Helio-signals from Buller, on February 26th, brought news that he was "going strong", in a difficult country causing progress to be slow, and that Cronje had been "cornered" by Lord Roberts. On the next day, the anniversary of Majuba, the Boers gave no sign of rejoicing with their guns, and the sounds importing fierce fighting to the south were incessant, in the thuds of heavy guns, the booming of field-artillery in salvos, and the shrill crackling of rifle-fire. At night came a signal from Buller "Doing well", and a message announcing the surrender of Cronje. On the morning of February 28th, as the mists cleared away, a welcome sight met the view of people in Ladysmith who looked south-westwards from Observation Hill. Boer convoys were trekking northward from the Tugela, past Spion Kop, in columns miles long. At other points, hundreds of crowded wagons were raising clouds of dense dust. In the open country, bodies of horsemen were hurrying away. The gazers from the long-beleaguered town were seeing a beaten army in full retreat. The sunshine which came in the afternoon enabled Buller to heliograph news of complete victory on the preceding day, and that cavalry were coming on as fast as bad roads allowed. "Long Tom" was seen in process of removal from Bulwaan, and the evening brought with it fulness of joy.

Sir George White, sitting under the verandah at head-quarters, with his eyes set in the direction of the Tugela, suddenly rose from his chair and cried "British cavalry, by Heaven!" Far off, faintly standing out against the horizon, a group of horsemen could be seen. Even with the field-glass it was impossible to say with certainty whether the advancing force were British or Boers, and a member of the general's staff ventured to express a doubt as to the force being British horsemen. "Sir," replied the hero, "do you mean to tell me I don't know British cavalry when I see them? I tell you I am right." Then, from the plain south-eastwards beyond the Klip River, cheers were heard at the hospital-camp at Intombi of so hearty a nature as could hardly come from sick and wounded men. The glad sounds were uttered by the volunteers on patrol near the camp. Forth rushed the townsfolk and men of the garrison, making for the drift which the new-comers must cross to reach the town. The voices of the few strong men broke down as they tried to cheer; women and children laughed and wept by turns, as they crowded to meet Lord Dundonald, the forerunner of the great relieving army, heading the advance-guard of 170 men, comprising troopers of the Imperial Light Horse, the Natal Carabineers, the Border Mounted Rifles, and Natal Police. They were welcomed first by General Brocklehurst, who gave a hearty hand-grip of greeting to the weather-stained leader, begrimed by days and nights of reconnoitring and bivouacking, as his horse floundered from deep water on to the slippery bank. Then the air was again rent with cheers as the crowd escorted the troopers, while women crowded round, pressing their hands, and kissing the horses. On the way to the town, Sir George White met the excited party, himself hemmed in by another cheering crowd of civilians and soldiers. The defender of Ladysmith then said to those who surrounded him, "Men, I thank you from the bottom of my heart for your support and help, which I shall acknowledge to the end of my life. It hurt me to cut down your rations, but I promise I will not do so again. Thank God we have kept the flag flying." A hurricane of cheers was followed by the singing of "God Save the Queen", and the general, greeting Lord Dundonald and his men, rode with them to head-quarters. After a hundred and twenty-two days of bombardment — a

THE RELIEF OF LADYSMITH

At the beginning of November, 1899, Ladysmith was isolated, and for four months the garrison gallantly held out against overwhelming numbers, and in spite of repeated disappointment and the ravages of disease and famine. They not only replied to the Boer bombardment and sniping, and repelled a most determined assault, but again and again made bold night sorties into the enemies' lines and destroyed several of their guns. At last, after three unsuccessful attempts to raise the siege, General Buller routed the enemy, driving them back to the north, and Lord Dundonald with a mounted force dashed forward and entered Ladysmith on February 28, 1900.



W. RAINEY, R.I.

77

THE RELIEF OF LADYSMITH.

hundred and nineteen of close investment—the siege of Ladysmith was at an end. In the words of our great historian, recording the deliverance of Londonderry, "It is easy to imagine with what tears grace was said over the suppers of that evening".

Relief had come, in truth, when it was full sorely needed. Only four days' supplies on full rations were left. A week longer, and famine would have been at work. The garrison and people would have starved long before but for Colonels Ward and Stoneman, the chiefs of the supply-department, whose organization of all branches was near perfection. There were 800 patients suffering from dysentery, enteric fever, other maladies, and injuries received from hostile fire, in the three hospitals at Intombi Camp, the proportion of sick to wounded being as eight to one. During the siege, 16 officers and 162 men had been killed in action. The bombardment had slain 35 officers and men, and wounded 20 officers and 168 men. By wounds in action, 47 officers and 360 men, of whom 94 afterwards died, had been laid low. Disease had accounted for 476 officers and men of the garrison, a figure implying a greater loss of life, and permanent injury to health, than in all the battles, assaults, and sorties from Talana Hill down to the date of relief. The chief curse of the besieged had been the fevers and dysentery due to bad water, privation, and the fetid dust arising from a town crowded with 21,000 half-starved people, including the garrison. It was not until the middle of January that disease became really virulent, but the general health of the troops suffered severely from the want of good nourishing food and of essential comforts. As many as 8424 officers and men passed through the hospitals, the daily average under treatment ranging from 1500 to 2000. Of enteric fever alone there were 1710 cases. When Lord Dundonald, the harbinger of victory for Buller and of salvation for Ladysmith, rode into the town, there was hardly a man among the defenders who could walk two miles, and, if the physical weakness of the garrison had been known to the foe, and the enemy could have summoned courage, after their experience in the great assault, for a determined attack in force along the whole line of defence, it is possible that the place might have been stormed amid a hideous scene of massacre.

Messages of hearty congratulation from the sovereign whose cause had been so nobly maintained reached Sir Redvers Buller and Sir George White, the defender of Ladysmith telegraphing a reply expressing his own "deepest gratitude" and the enthusiasm of the troops. "Any hardships and privations", he declared, "are a hundred times compensated by the sympathy and appreciation of our Queen, and your Majesty's message will do more to restore both officers and men than anything else." The countless millions of loyal subjects of the Crown throughout the empire rejoiced, with good reason, in the issue of events in northern Natal due to the strategy of Lord Roberts, the gallantry, resolution, and endurance of Sir George White and his troops, and the heroic persistence, against defeat after defeat and under terrible losses, of Sir Redvers Buller and his splendid army. All concerned acquitted themselves in a manner worthy of the great achievements recorded in British history, but the highest admiration is due to Sir George White and to the noble garrison, who, "in long days of wearisome monotony, broken only by the scream and thud and burst of shells; at noon beneath the fierce glow of the African sun, at night in the sodden trenches, had been patient, vigilant, ready, bearing all things, braving all things, hoping all things". In midnight attack over rugged heights, where broken boulders made every step a danger and a toil, they had trodden with a grim tenacity of purpose, and struck with a daring that wrested a tribute of praise from the foe; and in a long day's defence of the rocky ridges of Wagon Hills and Cæsar's Camp, assailed by the pick and pride of the Boer commandos, they had fought with a dogged courage, and, at times, with a brilliancy of daring, that wearied out and finally hurled away in utter defeat the skilful and resolute enemy. As long as the British empire endures, the defence of Ladysmith will be remembered with gratitude and pride.

On Friday, March 2nd, General Buller, in advance of his army, entered Ladysmith about an hour before noon, Sir George White riding out to receive him on the Helpmakaar road. The two generals were cheered as they rode through the main street into the town, but there was no crowd to make a great demonstration, preparations being promptly made for a public celebration on the arrival of the relieving forces. The two commanding officers,

however, received addresses from the Mayor at the Convent, where Sir Redvers established his head-quarters. Large convoys of supplies, mainly with medical comforts, had been sent forward to relieve the sorest needs of the population. On the following day, March 3rd, the relieving army, headed by General Buller, marched through the town, amid scenes of the greatest enthusiasm, the garrison and the entering army cheering each other along the route, and civilians paying a grateful tribute to both. The street was lined by troops, and the houses were decked with tiny Union Jacks, the only flags which the people could obtain. Sir George White and his staff were at the front of the Town Hall, where Sir Redvers made a brief halt to greet the defender of Ladysmith. Then the long defile continued, with the infantry, who had borne the brunt of the fighting in the relief-operations, following close upon their general. The loudest cheers were accorded to the Dublin, Scottish, Royal, and Royal Welsh Fusiliers, the 2nd Devons, and the 3rd and 60th Rifles, the heroes of Spion Kop. The Rifle Brigade and the Cavalry Brigade, under Colonel Burn-Murdoch, were also received with great enthusiasm, notably the South African Horse, which brought up the rear. For nearly three hours the long procession of battalions, batteries, and squadrons defiled, until the people were hoarse with cheering, and the tears sprang into men's eyes at the mere sound of the mighty voice of conquering British soldiers. The force, in tattered, weather-stained uniforms after months of campaigning, fourteen days' fighting, and a long march, strode on erect in the pride of victory, a grand spectacle to all who looked for the true pomp of war in men, and not in the outward garb. The formal ceremonial consisted in the Mayor and Corporation handing an address of thanks and congratulations to General White for his skilful and successful defence of the town, with the citizens' warm appreciation of the admirable behaviour of the whole garrison. In his reply, Sir George referred to the manly and patriotic fortitude displayed by the civilians in enduring many unusual privations, and paid a special tribute to Sir Archibald Hunter for his assistance, not only in the way of fighting, but in the question of supplies, and to Colonel Ward, whom he described as "the best supply-officer any army had known since Moses". He could not find words,

he said, adequately to state the inestimable debt owing to General Buller and the grand fighting force then making a triumphal entry through the shot-swept streets of Ladysmith. He then called for cheers for "the best of Queens". The roars of applause swelled into a mighty long-continued volume, and the National Anthem was sung with the most impressive effect. When Sir George, at last, entered a carriage to return to his head-quarters, several of the townsguard unharnessed the horses, and pulled the vehicle to its destination amid a scene of renewed enthusiasm.

The 20,000 men who had marched through the town then went out to their respective camps on the outskirts. A reconnaissance was made on the same day by a force including the Dragoon Guards, Lancers, and King's Royal Rifles. To the north, the Boers were seen behind Pepworth Hill with two long trains drawn up. Before the British troops arrived, the enemy steamed away, destroying the culverts beyond the station after they had passed. A large body of the foe near Pepworth's were engaged, the Boers sending a hail of bullets replied to by field-guns. On the Harrismith road wagons containing saddlery and provisions were captured. The Mounted Rifles, visiting all the enemy's camps around the town, brought back fresh meat, potatoes, and onions, welcome enough where a pound of fat beef, on February 21st, ten days previously, had been sold for 11*s.*, a plate of potatoes for 19*s.*, and a vegetable marrow for £1, 8*s.* On March 7th, Sir Walter Hely-Hutchinson, Governor of Natal, paid an official visit to the town, received by a salute from batteries firing blank cartridge for the first time during many months. Escorted by the Natal Police and other irregular horse, he was received in front of the Town Hall by Sir Redvers Buller, and he there read a message from the Queen, telegraphed through Mr. Chamberlain, and made an effective speech of congratulation. The officers of the garrison were then presented. Among the heroes of Ladysmith, we note the departure for England of men chiefly concerned in the defence. Captain the Hon. Hedworth Lambton, R.N., with his renowned naval brigade from H.M.S. *Powerful*, started for Durban to rejoin his ship. Sir George White, still weak from fever, departed for Pietermaritzburg, Durban, and Cape Town, where he received a rapturous welcome, and then sailed for home, whence,

after a few weeks of enthusiastic congratulation from all classes of his countrymen, and in restored health, he started for his Gibraltar command. We must now, after seeing the relief of Ladysmith, an event which, along with the raising of the siege of Kimberley, the capture of Cronje, and the occupation of Bloemfontein, marked the turning of the tide in the struggle —note the great operations of General Buller—subsequent to the defeat at Colenso—which, after two more failures, successfully ended one of the most arduous enterprises in modern warfare.

The composition of the infantry-force under Sir Redvers Buller's command has been already noted. The cavalry—Lord Dundonald's brigade—comprised the 1st Royal Dragoons, two squadrons of the 13th Hussars, the 6th (Inniskilling) Dragoons, two squadrons South African Horse, and some Imperial Light Horse. Their commander, Colonel the Earl of Dundonald, born in 1852, entered the 2nd Life Guards in 1870, served in the Nile Expedition of 1884–85, and had for five years been in command of his regiment. He inherited an illustrious name as grandson of the famous admiral, tenth earl of his line, who won renown, as Lord Cochrane, in 1809, by his attack on the French fleet in the Basque (Aix) Roads, and was afterwards distinguished in the South American War of Independence. The artillery, under Major-General Marshall, was composed of seven batteries R.A., the 61st Howitzer Battery, some naval guns, and the 4th Mountain Battery. General Buller's head-quarters at Frere Camp, south of the Tugela, in the early days of January, 1900, were 22 miles in a direct line, 29 miles by railway, distant from Ladysmith. At Colenso, held by the Boers, the river is about half-way between Frere and Ladysmith. North of Frere, just half-way to Colenso by the railway, lies Chieveley, Buller's position in advance of his head-quarters. The enemy's front, mostly along the north—but, in the extreme east and west, to the south —of the Tugela, extended from Mount Hlangwane on the east (south of the river) nearly to Springfield on the west, some miles south of the Tugela, and just north of its tributary, the Little Tugela. Their position covered in this way an extent of about 24 miles. It had been proved that their entrenchments, daily strengthened since General Buller's repulse on December 15th,

could not be forced by a frontal attack. Could they be turned? This was the problem to be solved by the British commander.

On Wednesday, January 10th, a great operation of war began. After a thorough reconnaissance of the country to the west, Lord Dundonald, with the Cavalry Brigade, and Major-General Hart with the 5th Brigade, including the Dublin Fusiliers, Connaught Rangers, and Border Regiment, marched out north-west for Springfield, about 15 miles away. When the American military attaché had been shown the Colenso hills after the reverse of December 15th, and had gazed at them for a few minutes, he said to the officer with him, "Say, colonel, is there no way round?" Buller was now trying a way round. During the whole of Wednesday, January 10th, and the following day, the army of 30,000 men, taking their tents and all their transport, an endless line like a rope being drawn slowly across the country, was making its way, in a wonderful procession of infantry, guns, gunners, ammunition, horsemen, and wagons with forage, rations, and tents; of fighting-men, bakers, cooks, farriers, type-writers, telegraphists, paymasters and their clerks, and post-office clerks; of telegraph-poles and wires, signallers with flags and heliographs, limelight flashlights, balloons and aeronauts, traction-engines and pontoons; of sappers, chaplains, doctors, ambulance-wagons, bearers, sailors, naval guns, and head-quarters' staff. Such is a modern army in the field of war. The "going" was very bad from heavy rain, as the host passed through a green and pleasant region, sometimes void and airy; sometimes, with the dark trees, drifting mist on the hills, and discoloured broken streams, reminding the beholder of "bonnie Scotland". Lord Dundonald, ahead of the column with some mounted infantry, had no orders to go beyond Springfield, but finding a hill unoccupied, he marched on and seized it, holding the position with 600 men and two guns. Thence he commanded the ford across the Tugela, called Potgieter's Drift, at which point, on the evening of Tuesday, January 16th, and the following day, Lyttelton's brigade waded across the river, holding on to each other's rifles, or were hauled across on a pont. Sir Charles Warren, with his division, moved farther west to the fords known as Wagon and Trichard's Drifts, crossing the Tugela on a pontoon-bridge, about 80 yards long, thrown by

THE NAVAL GUNS ON MOUNT ALICE

Some of the best work of the campaign was done by the Naval Brigade. It was largely owing to the opportune arrival at Ladysmith of a Naval contingent with heavy guns that the garrison was able to hold out so long. With Lord Methuen, too, the Naval Brigade rendered signal service, and the naval guns had a large share of the fighting in the battles of the Ladysmith relief force. The illustration shows the naval guns on Mount Alice covering the passage of Potgieter's Drift.

WILLIAM RAINEY, R.I. 78

NAVAL GUNS ON MOUNT ALICE.

the engineers. On Mount Alice, or Spearman's Hill, a little west of Potgieter's Drift, and on the south side of the river, were six naval 12-pounders and two 4.7 naval guns, to be aided by six howitzers placed among the sheltering infantry behind a string of small kopjes just across the Tugela.

The plan of attack was for the Boer right to be turned and their hills assailed in the rear by Sir Charles Warren, who was followed across the Tugela by General Clery, with Hildyard, Woodgate, Hart and their brigades, Lord Dundonald and the mounted infantry, and six field-batteries. At the same time, General Lyttelton was to attack the enemy in front. At half-past five in the morning of Wednesday, January 17th, the Boer position began to be bombarded by the naval guns and howitzers, but no reply was received, the enemy being too cunning thus to disclose the positions of their guns. The crossing of the Tugela had been a surprise for the foe, but, when the news arrived, they had hurried up in force from the east, bringing many guns of various kinds, and had begun to entrench themselves in strong positions on kopjes between the British points of crossing and Ladysmith, now lying to the north-east of Buller's army. General Buller had transferred his head-quarters to Spearman's Farm, about two miles south of Potgieter's Drift, leaving Barton and his brigade to watch the position at Colenso. North and north-east of Potgieter's Drift, at the point where Lyttelton was to make his attack, were two adjacent positions on hills, called Brakfontein and Vaal Krantz, where Boers were strongly entrenched. To the west of Brakfontein was the hill destined to become so famous, Spion Kop, which, with adjacent high ground extending four miles north-west, was also held by the enemy with entrenchments. Lord Dundonald, with his mounted men, had on the morning of January 17th pushed northwards to the Ladysmith road, and encountered the enemy with success near Acton Homes, eight miles north of Trichard's Drift, and about 18 miles west of Ladysmith. He was thus in a position cutting off the Boers from the passes westward into Orange Free State. The public at home and the Queen's loyal subjects in all parts of the empire were highly elated by news of the passage of the Tugela, and the turning of the enemy's right flank, and were looking forward with hope, and

even with some confidence, to the relief of Sir George White and his brave garrison. They were soon to be bitterly undeceived, and to be called upon to endure disappointment as keen as any experienced for many a year.

On Saturday, January 20th, a six days' battle began, and on all those days, in varying degrees, the hills were crashing with guns and rattling with musketry. At 3 a.m. General Woodgate occupied a kopje half-way up to the crest-line of the hills west of Spion Kop, and placed guns on the position. More guns were planted on a kopje to the right, and more again to the left on the plain at the foot of the hills. The great hill, Spion Kop, as has been shown, divided the British right, or Lyttelton's force, from the left. At 8 a.m. the British guns opened fire, and the infantry prepared to advance, with Woodgate on the right, Hart in the centre, and Hildyard on the left. Two battalions—the Lancashire Fusiliers and the York and Lancasters—belonging to Woodgate's Lancashire Brigade, had been transferred to General Hart's command. The brave British troops were, in fact, making another frontal attack on invisible foes, lying amid rocks and brown grass, behind jagged sangars, and in entrenchments. On went our men, with Hart's brigade, the strongest, ahead of the others, and the infantry, combining caution with dash, and taking cover with some skill, made their advance good from ridge to ridge. At the end of the day's work, the British lined a row of kopjes parallel with the Boer crests, but lower, and separated from the foe by a dip and a steep glacis, or smooth ascent, a thousand yards across. The loss thus far was about 400 men killed and wounded. At dawn on January 21st it was seen that the Boers had abandoned a few trenches to the right, and the British instantly took possession. Then the battle, in this quarter, came to a long stand. It was impossible to advance against the glacis in front under the fire of invisible marksmen, and the action was maintained solely from British guns and howitzers dealing out shrapnel and lyddite with some loss to the Boers, who replied by incessant "sniping" across the hollow. On the evening of Tuesday, January 23rd, it was clear that no further progress could be made with the frontal attack.

The key of the position, as Sir Charles Warren saw, was Spion Kop, running from north-east to south-west, and Sir Redvers

Buller accepted his scheme for an attack to be made from the south. Soon after dusk on Tuesday a party set out for a night-assault on the position. The troops employed were Thorneycroft's Mounted Infantry, the Lancashire Fusiliers, the Lancasters, two companies South Lancashire, and a company of Engineers, the command being entrusted to General Woodgate. Up the southern face, a climb over smooth rock and grass was made on hands and knees, slowly and steadily, and the men were three-quarters of the way up before they were discovered. Then a Boer sentry challenged for the pass-word, and received "Waterloo!" from a leading officer. The man turned to flee, but was instantly bayoneted. Thorneycroft's men were on the left, and the Lancashire Fusiliers on the right of the front line. "Fire and charge!" was the order. The Fusiliers went on at the double. Thorneycroft's volunteers rushed wildly forward. The Boer picket behind the sentry vanished into gloom, but the crest was not reached till day was dawning, and the men found themselves in a cloud of mist, seeing nothing but the plateau—400 yards across—on which they stood. Trenches were promptly made; not a man of the foe could be seen. When the mist lifted three hours later, the enemy opened a heavy fire from another ridge, and the British troops quickly found little protection in the trenches where they were crowded together. Under shell-fire, the men rose and went forward, some finding cover under rocks, and so, from time to time, in spasmodic rushes, the attack went on. The enemy had three guns in play—on the east and west Vickers-Maxims, in the centre a large Creusot. The British had no gun, without which their position must soon become untenable. A cry for reinforcements arose. Some Boer riflemen crept forward, and for a few minutes there was a small hand-to-hand fight. Then the combatants parted. The enemy's vicious shelling never ceased, and our men were falling fast, when bayonets came sparkling in the sun up the southern slope of the Kop, with mules bringing ammunition. The new force included the Dorsets, the Middlesex, Bethune's Horse, and the Imperial Light Infantry. About ten o'clock in the morning (January 24th) General Woodgate had been mortally wounded, and the command fell to Colonel Thorneycroft, a big man presenting an excellent mark, who moved about fearlessly all day and was never touched. The

reinforcements arrived, including the Scottish Fusiliers, over the east side of the hill from Potgieter's Drift. The misfortune was that there were few officers left to lead or to give orders. In the Lancashire Fusiliers only three officers were unwounded; in Thorneycroft's, 11 out of 18 were disabled, and in that force only 60 men out of 190 came off unwounded. Meanwhile, another attack was made. Late in the afternoon the 3rd Battalion of the King's Royal Rifles went up the eastern slope of Spion Kop from Potgieter's Drift, and seized two precipitous small kopjes, losing 100 men in their brief advance. Night fell, and no gun had come up, while the enemy's shelling and rifle-fire continued with accurate aim. At 8 p.m. Colonel Thorneycroft, who had been personally a target for thirteen hours, decided to retire. There was a mountain-battery already up, and two naval 12-pounders were half-way up. Yet Thorneycroft had no choice. His men had been subjected to mere massacre for many hours, and no physical strength or spirit was left in them. No troops except British would have endured what they had borne without panic and precipitate flight resulting. The disaster of Spion Kop was due to lack of leadership in the chief commanders, who never were on the hill at all. There were disputes going on below, in which Sir Charles Warren was concerned, and the chief commander, General Buller, trusting all to Warren, was miles away. Sir Charles Warren was afterwards removed from his Natal command by Lord Roberts, and Sir Redvers was censured for not being present at the critical moment and the critical point. The result was that, to the north-west, thousands of men in Hart's and Hildyard's brigades were left unemployed, when they could have come up and, perhaps with severe loss, have rushed the key of the whole battle. At five in the morning of Thursday, January 25th, General Buller was on the ground, and he decided that a second attack would be useless. A speedy and orderly retirement was made, the withdrawal to the south of the Tugela being accomplished, without any loss of men or stores, by 8 a.m. on Friday, January 26th. The second attempt to relieve Ladysmith had thus finally and decisively failed. The loss incurred was very great. 27 officers and 246 men were killed; 53 officers and 1056 men wounded; 7 officers and 340 men prisoners and missing.

The stern and resolute Buller soon made a third effort to reach Ladysmith. After General Warren's retirement the only position retained on the north bank of the Tugela was Krantz Kloof, the line of kopjes occupied by Lyttelton's brigade. The rest of the force went into camp between Spearman's Farm and Springfield, where they had a week's rest, with extra rations served out. It was Sir Redvers' design to pierce the enemy's centre at points lying east of Brakfontein Heights and Spion Kop. On January 30th and 31st the engineers were busy making a road along the southern side of Zwaartkop, a solitary wooded flat-topped hill south of the Tugela, about two miles east of Mount Alice. To this position, when the road was finished, six naval 12-pounders, two 15-pounder field-guns, and six mountain-guns were hauled up. North of the river, which takes here a very tortuous course, Brakfontein ends in a sharp spur called Vaal Krantz, very bare and rocky, running almost due south, over a mile in length, and ending in a round, steep kopje close to the river and dominating the flat ground all round it. Round this position, Vaal Krantz, turned the whole of the operations of February 5th–7th. North-east of Vaal Krantz, flat ground slopes up to the plateau running nearly all the way to Ladysmith, and to the east the ground rises to Doorn Kloof, the highest hill in the neighbourhood, very irregular in shape, whose sides are a mass of sharp peaks, deep gullies, wooded kloofs, and big dongas. On the lower slopes was an elaborate line of trenches guarding Schiet Drift. The Boer position, at any rate during the later stages of the fighting, was an almost complete semicircle from Spion Kop on their right to Doorn Kloof on the left, with only one small break in it, the gap between Brakfontein and Doorn Kloof through which runs the road to Ladysmith. This gap, itself much cut up by dongas, was held in considerable force by the enemy's riflemen. The great semicircle, nearly ten miles across, completely overlapped the British position, which had a front of about four miles in length.

On Sunday, February 4th, the British troops left camp, Hildyard's and Hart's brigades moving to the right, and bivouacking in front of Zwaartkop. General Lyttelton's brigade was withdrawn from the kopjes north of the river near Potgieter's Drift, and was replaced by the Lancashire brigade,

commanded by Colonel Wynne in place of the lamented Woodgate. In the evening, Wynne's men crossed over the drift, followed by six field-batteries. The plan of battle was for a feigned attack to be made on Brakfontein Hill by two infantry-battalions and the six batteries, while the main attack was to be made to the east, under protection of the guns, hidden on the wooded heights of Zwaartkop, and of the six batteries with Wynne's brigade, withdrawn again to a convenient position south of the river.

The morning of Monday, February 5th, dawned fine but very hazy. When the mist cleared away, those who stood gazing from Mount Alice saw long sinuous arms of infantry, artillery, and wagons stretching slowly eastward from the main body below Zwaartkop, while from Krantz Kloof long lines in extended order slowly moved on Brakfontein. About seven o'clock the field-batteries advanced and took up ground in the open between Krantz Kloof and Brakfontein, and the 4.7 naval guns began to fire. Wynne's brigade, with the York and Lancaster Regiment leading, supported by the South Lancashires, slowly went forward in widely-extended order, and several hours elapsed during which the enemy did not reply to our bombardment, and only kept up a desultory rifle-fire upon the advancing infantry from a farm-house and donga on their right front. At 10 a.m. the British field-batteries began to retire, and by 1 p.m. the withdrawal was finished, the operation being conducted under a very heavy and well-aimed shell-fire from the Boers, especially from their guns on Spion Kop. The casualties among our gunners were not heavy, though Colonel Montgomery was wounded by shrapnel. The feigned attack came to an end by the retirement of Wynne's brigade, when it had advanced to within a mile of Brakfontein. Then came a storm of rifle-fire from the enemy's trenches at long range, which did little harm.

On the right, the fire increased in volume as Lyttelton's men advanced for the attack on Vaal Krantz, and, after two hours' bombardment from our heavy artillery on Zwaartkop, General Lyttelton made his assault. The Durham Light Infantry, supported by the Rifle Brigade, went nearly half-way towards the hill under cover of the high bank of the river, but there the shelter came to an end, and they were forced to extend across

open ground. They found themselves at once under rifle-fire from the front, right flank, and right rear, and the attack spread out like a fan, the main body still advancing straight toward Vaal Krantz, and a part of the men turning aside to seize a farmhouse on the right from which rifle-fire had issued. Meanwhile, all the British movable guns had come into action, and a concentrated fire from 70 pieces, at comparatively short range, was poured on the enemy's position. In spite of this terrific fire, many Boers remained on the hill, and could be seen dodging about among the rocks. At last the Durhams, fixing bayonets, charged up the hill, and about 50 of the enemy fled headlong down the other side. The British rushed across the position, and shot down a score as they fled, and five or six prisoners, with about 20 ponies, were taken. The first attack on Vaal Krantz was thus a brilliant success. The difficulty was to come in following it up. The main attack had, beyond doubt, taken the enemy by surprise, but the Boers quickly made preparations to stay any further advance. A gun was brought round the north of Brakfontein, running the gauntlet of all our naval 12-pounders on Zwaartkop, and disappeared in one of the big dongas on Doorn Kloof. When evening fell on February 5th, Lyttelton held about half a mile of Vaal Krantz, his men being all on the western side, getting what shelter they could among trees and rocks. On the morning of February 6th the ground held by the British was seamed with trenches as a protection against hostile fire.

It had now become clear that the strategic value of Vaal Krantz for turning the Brakfontein position had been overestimated. Lyttelton's men were harassed by the guns, invisible to our artillery, mounted at Doorn Kloof, where, during the night, the Boers had placed a 100-pounder on the very summit. An artillery-duel continued until late in the afternoon, and the whole fire of the British artillery was unable to silence any one of the enemy's guns. At four o'clock the Boers, supported by a heavy shell-fire, made a desperate attempt to retake the lost portion of the hill, and soon drove back the foremost British line. Then a half-battalion of the 60th Rifles advanced with fixed bayonets, and the enemy's attack failed. After dark General Hildyard's brigade crossed the river and relieved Lyttelton's. That night and on the following morning (February 7th) the British were

more heavily shelled than ever by the foe, and it was clear that, unless the Boers were attacked in their present positions, Vaal Krantz, so far as it had been captured, was untenable. The simple truth was that, in inevitable ignorance of the ground, the British were going into a deadly trap. The troops were in a defile bounded by Spion Kop on one side and Doorn Kloof on the other, both positions being almost impregnable. The Boers were too strong in numbers, and their invisible guns too formidable. No way could be found to Ladysmith in that direction, and persistence in the effort must have entailed vast and useless sacrifice of life. Recognizing the facts of the case, General Buller very wisely ordered a withdrawal, and on Friday, February 9th, his forces were again south of the Tugela. The loss of life and the number of wounded men happily differed greatly, in the third attempt to reach Ladysmith, from the disastrous experience at Spion Kop. In the attack on Vaal Krantz, 2 officers and 23 men had been killed, 18 officers and 326 men wounded, while 5 men were reported "missing".

The attempts to turn the left flank of the enemy and to pierce the left centre having failed, Sir Redvers Buller turned his attention again to the road to Ladysmith along the railway. The main body of the army returned to Chieveley, the 13th and 14th Hussars, the Royals, the York and Lancasters, and the Lancashire Fusiliers, being detailed to watch the left flank at Springfield. Before describing these new operations, we must deal carefully with the country lying north and east of Colenso. That town lies in a narrow space between the railway, on the east, and the Tugela, there running due north, on the west. The river, just below (north of) Colenso, turns east for two miles, then north, parallel to the railway, now on the west, for five miles, and then finally leaves the line on its eastern course to the distant sea. About six miles north-west of Colenso, and four miles due west of the railway at Pieter's Station, is a hill called Grobler's Kloof. Six miles north-east of Chieveley, and about three miles south-east of Colenso, lies Hussar Hill, so named because some Hussars had been cut off there and killed in reconnoitring. For two miles north-east of Hussar Hill runs a low range called Red Belt. Two miles or more north of Hussar Hill lies Hlangwane Hill, an important point to be

noted, east of the Tugela in its five-mile northerly course just described, south of the Tugela after its final turn eastwards. The position is one of strategical importance from its command of the railway, beyond the river, and three miles to west, and it was held by the Boers, who were strongly entrenched. Three miles due east of Hlangwane lies Monte Cristo, running north and south for two miles; south-east of that comes the hill called Blaauw Krantz; and almost due south of Monte Cristo, and joined with it by a low nek, are the Cingolo (Intingolo or Angolo) Heights, lofty and very thickly wooded, and hence styled "Green Hill" in some of the despatches. All these positions—Hussar Hill, Hlangwane, Monte Cristo, Blaauw Krantz, and Cingolo—south of the Tugela and east of Colenso, were actually or practically in the possession of the Boers. Taught by sharp experience, the British general, justly honoured by the fullest confidence of his men after all their losses, had resolved to strive for Ladysmith by the railway-route, turning the foe on their left (eastern) flank. For this end, the seizure of all the above-named hills was of essential importance, seeing that their possession would allow the big naval guns to command the Boer lines of communication with the north, and almost to drop shells on the formidable Bulwaan (Isimbulwana) itself.

On Monday, February 12th, some British mounted infantry visited Hussar Hill to reconnoitre, and, after walking about on it for some time, suffered a dozen casualties from Boers who, lying ready in a donga, had been watching the proceedings. The needful knowledge had, however, been obtained, and on February 14th Lord Dundonald marched out at early morning with his mounted force, followed by a field-battery and the Irish Fusiliers. The Boers raced him for the hill, and lost by about five minutes. They then took position in a donga, a rough water-track connecting Hussar Hill with Hlangwane, and fired at the hill, being answered by Colt machine-guns and shrapnel. Hussar Hill was the first British success on the road to victory. The next step was to bring up the whole army to the ground that had been won. During the next two days, February 15th and 16th, the force on Hussar Hill was making its way carefully through the bush, probing it in front with rifle-shot and shell, towards the chief need—water, and thus, south-eastwards, possession was gained of

that essential, in the stream called Blaauwkranz, a tributary of the Tugela. Hussar Hill had been now made a position of strength by field-guns, four naval 12-pounders, two 5-inch garrison guns, and a battery of howitzers. The enemy constantly and accurately shelled the place with an invisible gun, doing some damage, but wholly unable to shake the British hold. On Saturday, February 17th, our heavy naval guns were severely bombarding the foe in Colenso and on Hlangwane, the weapons and their crews being well protected by sand-bag works. The field-guns were on the eastern side of the Hussar ridge, hidden among thorn-bushes, and pointing across the valley at Monte Cristo and Cingolo. The face of Cingolo, with its rich green grass, was marked by red lines where trenches had been cut into the earth.

On the morning of February 17th, a general attack was made on the Monte Cristo range, beginning on the south with Cingolo. It is impossible to give details of the complicated "fighting march" which ensued. The British troops—Barton's Fusilier brigade, Hildyard's English brigade, and the light brigade under Colonel Norcott—were handled with great skill, making no frontal attacks, but outflanking and enfilading the enemy's trenches in a slow, steady, successful progress. By nightfall Hildyard's men, standing out against the sky, were seen in possession of Cingolo and the dip, or nek, joining it to Monte Cristo. Early on Sunday, February 18th, after a heavy bombardment of the Boer positions with lyddite and shrapnel, Hildyard's and Lyttelton's men advanced against the enemy on Monte Cristo on the south and west, driving them from cover to cover until the summit of the ridge was gained, where the assailants bivouacked for the night. The eastern flank of the heights had been assailed by the Royal Welsh Fusiliers, and the foe could make no stand against the Fusilier battalions and the Queen's. Among the abandoned tents were found ponies, harness, Mauser ammunition, "pom-pom" shells, flour, biltong, bags of rusks, and tins of jam. The trenches, admirably made for free movement, many of them roofed, and practically shell-proof, had been of no avail against the flanking movements of the British, who had to cross ground of extreme difficulty under an intensely hot sun. On February 19th the advance was pushed on, and the Fusiliers captured Hlangwane from a foe who made little resistance, the position being com-

manded by the guns on Monte Cristo. Hlangwane taken, the kopjes on the north of the Tugela at Colenso, and the town itself, were at Buller's mercy. The enemy had withdrawn nearly all troops to the north of the river, and on February 20th Colenso was occupied by General Hart after a slight resistance from a weak rear-guard. The railway had been much damaged, but the engineers soon laid a pontoon-bridge across the stream, and on February 21st the Fifth Division passed over, and drove back the Boers when the naval 12-pounders had silenced all their guns. On the evening of that day a reconnaissance was made to the slopes of Grobler's Kloof, which was strongly held by the enemy, who had been reinforced, and the Somersets had nearly a hundred men disabled. At 1.30 p.m. on February 22nd the British infantry, with the South Lancashires, Lancasters, 3rd Battalion 60th Rifles and Rifle Composite Battalion leading, marched on Grobler's Kloof in skirmishing order under a heavy artillery and rifle fire, which prevented much progress from being made. The Boers were making a stubborn resistance, and their 100-pounder Creusot was very active.

At 1.30 p.m. on Friday, February 23rd—the tenth consecutive day of conflict—the British advanced to attack Railway Hill, on their right front, a strong position consisting of two humps joined by a nek, all entrenched, higher than any kopjes held by Buller's forces. The position to be assailed was about two miles south of Pieter's Station. The infantry, moving under the river bank, came to a place where they had to climb the bank and cross a railway-bridge over a spruit running into the Tugela. A Boer "pom-pom" was trained on the bridge, but it was crossed by the hurrying linesmen without harm, and they then deployed and moved over open ground to the foot of Railway Hill. The storming-party was composed of the Irish Brigade—the Inniskilling Fusiliers, four companies of the Dublins, and four companies of the Connaughts—supported by the East Surreys, the West Yorks, and the Imperial Light Infantry. By this time it was a clear evening, with a wonderful light along the lower sky, against which the jagged stone trenches on the hill showed black and hard. The Boers there ensconced were being shelled with shrapnel and lyddite from field-guns and naval guns on the northernmost spurs of Hlangwane. The Inniskillings advanced,

and were met by a fire under which the whole front line fell almost to a man. Their places were instantly filled, men dropping at every yard, and the brave assailants, gaining what they had thought to be the highest point, found the real crest to be four hundred yards in their front. It was impossible to reach the top, and they sullenly retired some way down the hill and built themselves a stone-work, where they stayed until the morning. A mistake had been made in regard to the advance of supports, and another attack made by the Inniskillings at dawn on February 24th inevitably failed. A very damaging fire came from the flanks. At 7 a.m. the commander, Colonel Thackray, and both majors had been killed, and the remains of the battalion were in charge of a captain. Fourteen officers out of seventeen had fallen, and at roll-call only one officer and forty men responded out of nearly six hundred, though others, who had escaped under cover, afterwards rejoined. During the retirement down the hill Lieutenant-colonel Sitwell, of the Dublins, fell with a mortal wound. The attack was not renewed on that day (February 24th), though some of the Durhams were sent up to reoccupy the stone-work made by the Inniskillings during the previous night. The wounded, lying out in the heat in the morning, and under heavy rain in the afternoon, were fetched in by the bearers, and during most of Sunday, February 25th, there was an armistice during which British soldiers and Boers held amicable converse on the battle-ground. Another failure had taken place on the road to success, but this time, in spite of the heavy loss, it was a mere detail. There was to be no more real turning back on the way to Ladysmith.

On February 25th guns and baggage were withdrawn to the south bank of the Tugela for a fresh start, a new plan of action. The hills east of Railway Hill were to be attacked. The possession of these would outflank that position, which was to be again assailed both in front and on the east. On Tuesday, February 27th, when the forces had again crossed the river, north of Monte Cristo, the attacking battalions crept in a long thin line along the north bank where the Tugela runs chiefly east and west. General Barton, with the Scots, Irish, and Dublin Fusiliers, was to attack Pieter's Hill, two miles north-east of Railway Hill, on the right. Colonel Kitchener, in charge of Colonel Wynne's brigade, con-

sisting, for the day, of Kitchener's own regiment—the West Yorks, and the South Lancashires, Royal Lancaster, and York and Lancasters, was to assail the central Boer position, a hill between Pieter's and Railway Hills; and Colonel Norcott's brigade, composed, for the day, of the Durham Light Infantry, the Rifle Brigade, the East Surreys, and a half-battalion of the Scottish Rifles, was to make a frontal assault on Railway Hill. General Barton's men, creeping cautiously on among rocks and bush for nearly two miles under the river bank, moving eastwards, with skirmishers scouting in front, and then beckoning on the rest, at last drew up at the foot of Pieter's Hill. The ascent was up an almost precipitous cliff 500 feet high, but so swift and active had the British under Buller now become in the experience of the campaign that, in a marvellously short space of time, the front rank men, to viewers at a distance, were standing out against the sky-line at the top, and the position was won with the utmost ease. The enemy's left was thus partially turned. It was Majuba day, with Cronje, as was already known to the Natal force, surrendering about 260 miles away due west, while Buller's men, thinking of the event of 1881, and of the checks recently incurred, were full of power, spirit, and dash in the resolve to have victory also, on that anniversary of disaster, in the eastern scene of conflict. The troops under Kitchener were already near the top of the central hill, pausing before a final rush, and only the difficult assault of Railway Hill remained. The East Surreys and the Rifle Brigade in front, and the South Lancashires, on the east, had all crept up to a certain point, these last lying on the near slope of the railway-bank. They were under fire so careful that, if a man put his head above the line, the track flew up in dust raised by a Boer bullet. Some small parties—mere handfuls of men—from time to time crept across the line. It was nearly 5 p.m., and the open hill-side had to be traversed, the ground where the Inniskillings had so fearfully suffered three days before. Then came a marvellous burst of valour as the South Lancashires suddenly rose in a body and dashed, spreading out fan-wise, up the hill-side. At the same moment, farther to the right, a second rush of infantry came, converging on the first body, and the whole sweeping wave of heroic British soldiers broke on a small stony

kopje on the lower slopes of the hill. There were two Boer trenches there, but the foe could not face the bayonets flashing in their front, and away they ran down the back of the kopje, hotly pursued. In one trench, an arm waved a white shirt or towel, and some prisoners were made. The upward rush continued, and soon a British soldier, in the topmost trench, was seen waving his helmet atop of his bayonet, while the Boers ran headlong down the stony farther side of the hill. In a few minutes about sixty prisoners were being taken down to the river. Supports went leisurely up the slopes, fronting the low, evening sun, and the position, now climbed on all sides, was won amidst general cheering in which even staff-officers heartily joined, throwing up their helmets, and shaking hands with each other. This easy success, which was the last scene of fighting on the road to Ladysmith, was doubtless due to the enemy's panic caused by the outflanking British movements ending in the capture of Pieter's Hill and the central position. There was nothing for it but flight or being surrounded on all sides, with the certainty of death or capitulation.

When light came on the morning of February 28th, the Boers were seen trekking away northwards in a long line. The hills on which the victorious British under Buller stood were scorched with British shells; trees were stripped of foliage and smashed to bits; sixteen Boers were found dead in one trench; among the slain were some boys, old men, and two women; the whole of the trenches and littered clothes were besmeared with the noxious yellow effluvium of lyddite. Such was the end of fourteen days of conflict. The scenes connected with the actual relief of Ladysmith have been already given. No words of eulogy can do more than justice to the heroic pertinacity of the commander of the Natal Field Force, Sir Redvers Buller. Stern and stubborn under repeated reverses, he had illustrated nobly the finest, the unconquerable, element of British character. With a single army-corps he had accomplished that which the highest German authorities had declared to be a difficult task for thrice that number. He had waged warfare for weeks in a country where all the forces of Nature were arrayed against him; he had carried on a conflict, with terrible loss to his forces, against enemies on whose side were ranged the most deadly of modern weapons, the best resources of

LADYSMITH CELEBRATIONS IN LONDON
SCENE AT THE MANSION HOUSE

The glad tidings of the relief of Ladysmith reached London on the morning of Thursday, March 1st, 1900, and aroused an excitement and exultation almost without parallel in the hearts of the millions of patriotic Britons who had for so many days been awaiting decisive news with mingled hopes and fears for a gallant general and his men. A delirium of joy prevailed in the metropolis, spreading through the City of London from the Mansion House where the Lord Mayor announced the fact to assembled thousands. The illustration shows men and women of all classes giving vent to feelings rarely so openly expressed by Britons.

74

LADYSMITH CELEBRATIONS IN LONDON: SCENE AT THE MANSION HOUSE

engineering art, the utmost cunning, the greatest mobility. He had finally triumphed over all difficulties, aided by the strategy of Lord Roberts, through the possession of strength of nerve and will which no disappointments and disasters could overcome. In the darkest hour he had never faltered, and he had been admirably supported by his followers—the men who never lost confidence in the leader that steadily trusted them, the splendid soldiers—never surpassed in endurance and heroism, in valour against the fighting, and in humanity towards the vanquished foe—who had won new renown for the world-famous British army. We may close this portion of our narrative—the operations for the relief of Ladysmith—by counting the cost, from first to last, to the deliverers of Sir George White and his garrison. In the final fourteen days, February 14th–27th, inclusive, 23 officers had been killed and 90 wounded; 264 non-commissioned officers and men had been killed, and 1770 wounded; 1 officer and 33 non-coms. and men were reported "prisoners and missing". In the four operations—the reverses at Colenso, Spion Kop, and Vaal Krantz, and the final successful advance—60 officers were killed and 217 wounded. The slain non-commissioned officers and men numbered 671; the wounded were 4029. The "missing and prisoners" comprised 29 officers and 587 men. The total casualties thus reached the appalling number of 5593. It is well to know that the whole remaining period of the war—many months of incessant conflict, not serious in a military sense, but momentous for the foe, carried on through the Orange State, Cape Colony, and the Transvaal—did not cause losses surpassing those due to the Boer invasion of Natal.

We turn now to a very different, and a distant, scene of warfare, the rebellion in the north-west of Cape Colony, a matter of some importance, but one which need not detain us long. The traitorous allies of the Boers in the chief colony of South Africa were, of course, dependent for success on those whom they sought to serve. Troublesome enough for a time, while the Boer arms were prospering in Natal; soaring to heights of impudent aspiration for deliverance from British "tyranny"; these people and their cause collapsed like a burst balloon when Lord Roberts, after victorious dealing with more worthy foes, had time to adopt measures for their destruction. The region with which we are

now concerned is of large extent, stretching from a southern line extending westwards from Victoria West, on the railway about 100 miles south-west of De Aar, through Fraserburg, to Calvinia, about a hundred miles only from the Atlantic at the mouth of Oliphant's River; northwards by Britstown, Carnarvon, Van Wyk's Vlei, Kenhardt (on Hartebeeste River) to Upington, Kheis, and Prieska, on Orange River; and to Douglas, between the Orange and the Vaal; thus involving much of Western Cape Colony, the Gordonia district of British Bechuanaland, and the southern portion of Griqualand West. Early in March the rebellion of these colonial Dutchmen was spreading south from Griqualand West. A commandant arrived with his force near Kenhardt on February 28th, and, sending in a white flag, summoned the magistrate to surrender. That official, going forth to meet him, was instantly made prisoner, and the rebels, entering the little town, hoisted the "Vierkleur", proclaimed the district to be "Free State territory", and sang the "Volkslied" or Boer national air. They also started "commandeering" supplies, detaining the magistrate and chief-constable to be tried at Bloemfontein on a charge of "murder", because they had employed certain natives, who had exchanged shots with the rebels, in defence of the district. The natives were treated with great severity by these insolent disturbers of the peace. The Prieska district was also "annexed" to the Free State, by proclamation; the Prieska and Kenhardt borders were patrolled by Boers; and a move northwards was made from Kenhardt towards Upington. In the first week of March, a British force from De Aar, including City of London Volunteers and some 2nd Warwicks, under Col. Adye, R.A., had an indecisive action with the rebels near Britstown, thirty miles west of De Aar, losing fourteen men wounded and six prisoners, the enemy having five men killed and their Maxim gun disabled.

By March 10th, Lord Kitchener, despatched from the Free State after Cronje's surrender, was at Victoria West Road Station, arranging the movements of various columns proceeding to quell the rising. An advance-guard of the Carnarvon Field Force, consisting of New Zealand Mounted Infantry, under Major Cradock, was at the town of Carnarvon. There was fighting in several quarters, the influx of refugees to Carnarvon indicating that the rebels were gaining ground. On March 12th, they

entered Van Wyk's Vlei (midway between Carnarvon and Kenhardt), a little settlement which has grown up around a great irrigation-reservoir, capable of holding 35,000 million gallons. There occurred a dramatic scene very honourable to the loyal postmistress, Miss Walton. That brave subject of the Queen burst into tears when the enemy smashed her telegraph-instrument, but flatly refused to give up her keys. One Boer pointed his rifle at her, but the little lady only cried "Shoot me dead, then you can take the keys, not otherwise". The keys were hidden in the bosom of her dress, and the rebels, in sheer admiration of her courage, desisted from threats, and left the place with praises on their lips. The post-office money and stamps were sent away safely in charge of a Kenhardt loyalist, who conveyed them to Carnarvon. The visit of the rebels to the settlement ended in their carrying off all the horses and mules. We may here note that the region of the rebellion, except in part of the Calvinia district, is "karoo" of the most barren character, mere stony desert for hundreds of miles, but capable of being turned by irrigation into most fertile land, "vlei" being the name for an artificial reservoir, or for any large piece of open water. By March 14th communication between Carnarvon and Cape Town had been cut, and great anxiety and excitement existed until the speedy restoration of the wires.

Some smart work was done by the New Zealanders under Major Cradock. On March 17th the Colonials left Carnarvon for Van Wyk's Vlei, and arrived there on the following day, after accomplishing a fifty miles' march in twenty-four hours, nothing being seen of the rebels. The presence of the force was a great encouragement to the loyal farmers, which was increased by the arrival at Carnarvon of Canadian Mounted Rifles, under Lieutenant-colonel Herchmer, the Canadian Artillery, under Colonel Drury, and a contingent of the Derbyshire Yeomanry, under Major Dugdale. Staff-colonel Sir Charles Parsons, K.C.M.G., Assistant Inspector-general on the lines of communication, also arrived. News was brought by the magistrate and other refugees from Upington that the place had been occupied by rebels on March 10th, without resistance, and that all the Dutch residents had joined them. A change was coming over the scene. The rebels were unable to face the forces

directed against them by Lord Kitchener, who, on March 19th, occupied Prieska unresisted, the rebel colonists, about 200 in number, laying down their arms, while the Transvaal Boers fled across the Orange River northwards. Thirty-three prisoners were taken, with 200 stand of arms, some supplies, and explosives. The occupation of Prieska was a sore discouragement to the Gordonia and Kenhardt rebels, and the men of the column which started north from Carnarvon under Sir Charles Parsons were afraid lest they should have no fighting. The importance of the outbreak of rebellion in that portion of Cape Colony lay in the fact that it was a disloyal experiment on which much depended. It was practically the first instance of an unprovoked rising among residents in the colony. In other quarters, as in the region just south of the Orange where we have seen Generals Gatacre, French, and Brabant engaged, the disaffected had been subject to strong temptation in the presence of large bodies of invaders, and in many cases no choice had been left to fairly loyal colonists between joining the enemy from the Orange Free State and being driven from their homes with the loss of the means of livelihood and of all their most treasured possessions. The rising in the north-west was, in a very large measure, a deliberate, uninvited attempt to throw off the control of the British Government, and, if it had not been promptly checked, it would have been followed in other regions where the Dutch element was strong. The action of the wise Lord Roberts probably prevented rebellion extending southwards to within a short distance of Cape Town.

On March 24th, the whole of the Carnarvon Field Force was gathered at Van Wyk's Vlei, and Sir Charles Parsons and his staff, with a Canadian escort, marched for the north-west with the vanguard, composed of Canadian and New Zealand troops. Refugees from Upington had reported that the rebels, with the determination to resist the advance of the column, were entrenched between Van Wyk's Vlei and Kenhardt. The news of the advance seems to have struck the enemy with dismay, for on April 1st a party of only eight New Zealanders, under Lieutenant Crawshaw, entered Kenhardt without opposition, capturing nine rebels, a large number of rifles, and 18,000 rounds of ammunition. The main body found no fighting work to be

done, but the region of rebellion was, for the time, pacified by their presence, and by the middle of April the force had returned to De Aar and Victoria West Road stations. During a useful, if not eventful, campaign of five weeks these Canadians, Western Australians, New Zealanders, and Derbyshire Yeomanry had marched to Kenhardt and back, a distance of over five hundred miles, under the difficulties of heavy roads due to unprecedented rains, and of trouble in procuring supplies.

The rebellious movement in the north-west was not, however, yet finally subdued. There was a fresh outbreak in Griqualand West and the adjacent territory to the west in May, and Lord Roberts charged Sir Charles Warren with the task of extirpating the evil. That general left Rooipan for Douglas on the night of May 20th with a force consisting of the Munster Fusiliers Mounted Infantry, Imperial Yeomanry, Cape Police, the Duke of Edinburgh's Volunteer Rifles, Warren's Scouts, and two guns of the Canadian Artillery. The little army marched in two columns, one commanded by Colonel Hughes, the other under Colonel Spence. Hughes and his men took the direct route through the veldt, and, at four miles from Douglas awaited their comrades. At about two miles from Douglas, the Boers were seen galloping towards a low kopje on the banks of the Vaal, some 2500 yards from the road. The Canadian guns at once came into action, and drove the enemy towards Douglas by a few well-aimed shells. The Cape Police and Warren's Scouts, under Colonel Hughes, then advanced in skirmishing order towards the town, and, on arriving within 1000 yards they rushed through the place to the houses close to the banks of the river, and exchanged firing with the enemy for some time. The Boers finally fled, abandoning their laager with three wagons and a great quantity of ammunition and food. In the afternoon of May 22nd the enemy, about 300 strong, opened a hot fire on a detachment of Imperial Yeomanry and Scouts, doing little harm, and were then driven off by the excellent practice of the Canadian guns, aided by the Maxim of the Duke of Edinburgh's Rifles. The Imperial Yeomanry behaved in their usual excellent style. After this engagement Colonel Hughes and his scouts brought in a large number of sheep and goats captured from the rebels and their Boer allies.

On May 30th a smart action took place at Faber Spruit, twelve miles from Douglas. Sir Charles Warren, with 700 men, had reached that point on the previous day, and occupied a strong defensive position. Before dawn he was fiercely attacked by a body of 1000 rebels, who, during the moonless night, had crept up and surrounded the British camp beyond the picket-lines. At the same time a strong party, with their boots off, passed between the pickets up a valley into the garden of a farm a short distance from the Yeomanry quarter-guard, while another party advanced, in the open, directly up to another farmhouse where Sir Charles and the Duke's Volunteers were quartered. Just before daylight firing began on all sides upon various parts of the camps, covering a considerable area. A very heavy fire was poured in from the garden upon the space between the two farmhouses. That ground was, fortunately for the British, not occupied by troops, but communication between the infantry and the mounted men was thus cut off. The English Yeomanry horses had been kraaled, and, taking fright at the firing, the animals broke through the walls and stampeded, together with the English horses of the other corps. Most of the Cape horses, and all the Canadian, remained quiet. For some time a very heavy fire was directed by the enemy upon the kraal where Paget's Horse and the Colt gun were stationed. The shield of the Colt, promptly brought into action, was smashed to pieces. As day broke, the position of the enemy in the garden was revealed, and Sir Charles Warren directed the whole of the fire of the reserves and of the Maxim gun upon that point. The enemy fled thence, after heavy loss, as the Duke's Volunteers started to charge them. The Duke's Volunteers, the Yeomanry under Colonel Hughes, and Warren's Scouts, advancing to support the pickets, drove off the rebels surrounding the camp, the Yeomanry showing special coolness under a heavy fire as they charged out from their sheltered bivouacs to an adjacent hill, and losing heavily in their advance. The action lasted nearly an hour, the Canadian guns firing shell into the retreating foe, and having a gunner killed. The British loss was 15 killed, including the gallant and popular Colonel Spence, of the Duke's Volunteers, and 30 wounded, including Major Kelly, A.D.C. Sir Charles Warren and his staff were greatly exposed in passing backwards and forwards, mounted,

between the farmhouses. Some of the best marksmen in Griqualand West were among the enemy who occupied the garden, where thirteen dead Boers, mostly well-known shots, were found, with five severely wounded.

A few days before this encounter a British force under Colonel Adye had gained a decisive victory over rebels at Kheis, on the Orange River, at the boundary between Griqualand West and the Gordonia district of British Bechuanaland. The attack made by Colonel Adye on May 27th was a complete surprise, and was most timely in preventing the junction planned between the enemy at Kheis and another body of rebels gathered 24 miles away. While the 44th Battery R.A., from the south, was shelling the Boers on the north bank of the river, Colonel Adye took his mounted troops across a drift, made a wide turning movement, and got in rear of the foe. They were caught between two fires, but made a strong resistance, suffering heavy losses. With a loss of seven men killed and eighteen wounded, the British captured the rebel laager with 100 prisoners, many women and children, two dozen wagons and carts, between five and six thousand head of small stock, 150 horned cattle, 50 horses, and 8000 rounds of ammunition. The effect of this blow was great. Most of the rebels of Griqualand West had nothing left except the clothes in which they stood, and the capture of their wives and means of subsistence quickly brought about a general submission. On June 13th reports came in to Prieska that the whole country to the south and west of Griquatown had been cleared of rebels, large numbers having surrendered and handed in their weapons. On June 24th, Sir Charles Warren was able to report to Lord Roberts that the rebellion in Cape Colony north of the Orange River was at an end, through the surrender of the last formidable body on June 20th. These men composed the commando under De Villiers, who went away eastwards with a small party, leaving behind him, as prisoners and booty of war, sixteen leading rebels, 220 men, 280 horses, 18 wagons, 260 rifles and over 100,000 rounds of ammunition.

CHAPTER XVI.

The War in South Africa—*Continued.*

Lord Methuen's operations—Boshof taken—Boer treachery—Colonel Villebois de Mareuil killed—Warfare in east of Orange River State—Lord Roberts' position—Long delay needful—Colonel Pilcher and Colonials at Ladybrand—The fight at Karee Siding—The Boers driven off—Disaster to Royal Irish Rifles near Reddersburg—The Sanna's Post (or Koorn Spruit) reverse—British guns taken—General Rundle in the field—His antecedents—British force besieged at Wepener—Brave and successful defence—Generals Brabant, Hart, and Rundle at work—Pole-Carew and the Guards—Chermside's Division (Third) and General French in action—Ian Hamilton, Smith-Dorrien, and MacDonald in the field—Sharp measures against Boer treachery—General Rundle's operations in May, 1900—His able tactics—Boer methods for saving guns and stores—Rundle occupies Senekal (May 27th)—Lindley and Heilbron taken—Disaster to Imperial Yeomanry near Lindley—Lord Methuen routs the Boers—Reverse of Derbyshire Militia at Rhenoster River—Lord Roberts' advance from Bloemfontein—His irresistible march—Brave deed of Gordon Highlanders—Capture of Brandfort and Winburg—The Zand River crossed—Kroonstad occupied—President Steyn flogs fleeing burghers—Lord Methuen at work in the west—Hoopstad occupied—Lord Roberts' victorious advance—His energy in command—Annexation of Orange State proclaimed as "Orange River Colony"—Lord Roberts crosses the Vaal—The advance to Johannesburg—Surrender of the town (May 31st)—Incidents at occupation—Advance on Pretoria—Flight of the enemy—Release of British prisoners—Surrender of Krüger's capital—Occupation of Pretoria (June 5th, 1900)—Ignominious close of Krüger's career. Siege of Mafeking from January 25th until relief—Baden-Powell's defence—Sufferings of besieged—Message from the Queen—Severe bombardment—Messages from Queen and Lord Roberts—Good spirit of garrison and townsfolk—Colonel Plumer's efforts to relieve Mafeking—His arrival at Lobatsi—Plumer near Zeerust—Is forced to retire—Value of his efforts—Sir Frederick Carrington takes the field—His antecedents—The march from Beira to Mafeking—Colonel Mahon's march from the south—Fighting on way to Mafeking—His junction with Plumer—Assault on Mafeking repulsed—Relief of Mafeking (May 17th)—Reception of news in British Isles—Losses during siege—Value of the brave defence—Celebration of Queen's birthday by Baden-Powell and his men—The Transvaal invaded on west—Zeerust occupied—Potchefstroom and Lichtenburg seized—Baden-Powell at Rustenburg—Further fighting in Transvaal—Boer attacks on railways—De Wet's activity—British enter Heidelberg—Lord Roberts' army-order of June 7th—Another reverse to British forces—Delarey captures Lincolnshires at Nitral's Nek—Operations in July against Louis Botha—Lord Methuen routs Boers near Rustenburg—The position of affairs at end of July, 1900. Buller's operations in Natal—The Boers in the Biggarsberg—Death of General Piet Joubert (March, 1900)—Buller's long rest after relief of Ladysmith—His advance in May—Enemy's positions turned—Boers quit Natal—Buller invades the Transvaal—Standerton occupied—Buller at Pretoria (July 7th). Difficulties of British commanders—General Paget near Bethlehem—Activity of De Wet—General Clements drives Boers from Bethlehem—Rundle's fine operations in Orange River Colony—His difficult position—General Hunter joins him—Boers driven into east near Basutoland—Escape of De Wet—Capture of General Prinsloo and large Boer force—Escape of Ollivier—Rundle occupies Harrismith (August 6th). De Wet's operations—Pursued by Lord Kitchener—Lord Roberts' new proclamation—The burning

of Boer farms—Baden-Powell in western Transvaal—The gallant defence of Australasian and other Colonials at Eland's River—Their relief by Lord Kitchener—Major Tunbridge and Surgeon-captain Duka. The Pretoria plot against Lord Roberts—General Buller's good work in Transvaal—Pole-Carew in field—Lord Roberts at Belfast (August 25th)—The operations against Botha—Severe fighting—Capture of Boer positions—Buller's and Ian Hamilton's operations—Dundonald and Brocklehurst in field—The occupation of Lydenburg—Flight of Krüger to Lourenço Marques—Lord Roberts' new proclamation—Buller at Spitzkop—Railway-line cleared to Komati Poort by Pole-Carew—Seizure of rolling-stock—Flight of Boers into Portuguese territory—Occupation of Komati Poort—Capture of Boer guns—Operations of General French in eastern Transvaal—He captures Barberton, with many locomotives—Fighting in Orange River Colony—Commandant Ollivier taken—Boers repulsed at Winburg—Successes of General MacDonald—Boer losses of stock in September, 1900—Lord Methuen's activity—Operations in last months of year—Activity of De Wet, Delarey, and Erasmus—General Buller returns to England—Krüger sails for Europe—Annexation of Transvaal proclaimed (October 25th, 1900)—Death of Prince Christian Victor—British losses during October—Various modes of death of troops in field—General Charles Knox severely defeats De Wet—Death of Colonel Le Gallais in action—Operations in November—British disaster at Dewetsdorp—Lord Roberts surrenders command to Lord Kitchener (December 1st)—Returns to England as commander-in-chief—His remarkable farewell "Order"—His high eulogy of conduct of British troops—Calumnies of "pro-Boers" in England—General Election in British Isles—Strong majority for Lord Salisbury—Eulogy of Lord Roberts—Sources of British success in the war. Boers defeated at Rhenoster Kop (November 29th)—General Charles Knox and De Wet—General Clements defeated in the Magaliesberg—His retort on the foe under Delarey—Petty invasion of Cape Colony by Boers—Lord Kitchener's new tactics—Appeals for mounted reinforcements. British losses up to the end of 1900. Honours conferred on Lord Roberts—Death of Queen Victoria (January 22nd, 1901). Description of Transvaal and Orange River Colony—Swaziland becomes a British "protectorate". Latest events of nineteenth century in other parts of Africa—Southern Rhodesia—British East Africa—Uganda—Nigeria—Gold Coast Colony—The Ashanti campaign of 1900—Severe fighting—The rebels subdued—Events in Sierra Leone.

While Lord Roberts, with General French and other leaders, was advancing towards Bloemfontein, Lord Methuen, in the region north-east of Kimberley, to the north of Modder River, was actively engaged with Boers who had separated themselves from Cronje's army. There was fighting with the enemy to the north of Kimberley, near Windsorton Road and Warrenton, without any decisive result. On March 13th, the Imperial and local troops, under Lord Methuen's command, returned to Kimberley after an expedition to Boshof, about 30 miles to the north-east. The Boers quitted the place as soon as the British were seen approaching, and, without the firing of a shot, the town was entered, and rifles of all descriptions, with 70,000 rounds of ammunition, were captured. On April 5th, a success was gained

over a small body of men, mostly foreigners, who were threatening the British leader's communications about nine miles south of Boshof. The enemy, about 80 strong, had a strong position on a kopje, whence they kept up a hot well-aimed fire. Lord Methuen, attacking with three companies of Imperial Yeomanry, and the same force of Kimberley Mounted Rifles, outflanked the foe in conjunction with a front attack, while the 4th Battery R.A. shelled the kopje. The position was stubbornly defended, and Captain Boyle, of the Oxfordshire Yeomanry, was killed. When our men, with fixed bayonets, were within a dozen yards, the white flag was hoisted, and Lieutenant Williams, of the Lincolnshire Yeomanry, was deliberately killed as he went forward to receive surrender. The perpetrator of this foul murder was instantly shot dead, and the whole body of the enemy were taken prisoners. The Boer force, many of whom used the soft-nosed, split-tipped bullets forbidden by the laws of war as recognized among European nations, included many Frenchmen, and some Germans and European Dutchmen. The enemy lost ten men killed, and the same number wounded. About sixty prisoners, with their horses, ammunition, and baggage, were taken back to Boshof. The real importance of this little engagement lay in the death of the enemy's commander, killed in the fight. This was a general in the Boer service, Colonel de Villebois Mareuil, formerly of the French army, a veteran of the Franco-German war, and an officer of considerable ability, whose loss to the Boer cause was probably equivalent to that of a large commando. We must now turn to events in the east and south-east of the Orange State, where the enemy rallied in considerable strength after their reverses in Cape Colony, Natal, and in the west of the Orange River territory. Strong Boer forces, under able leaders, were in the field, and were destined to cause some minor disasters, and abundant trouble, to the British troops, before they were dispersed to their farms, or expelled from the scene of warfare, or brought to surrender.

In the first place, the Boer invaders of Cape Colony, driven out, as we have seen, by Brabant and other British leaders, were still in the field. They had not been overtaken and subdued; they had got clear away, as has been noted, under Ollivier and other commanders. There were, moreover, large numbers of

Free Staters from Natal who, on tidings of Lord Roberts' invasion of their country, had crossed the Drakensberg for her defence. Thirdly, there were many hundreds of men, formerly under Cronje's command, who had not shared his fate because they had taken different routes from his on the hasty break-up from Magersfontein and Spytfontein. It has always been impossible to form any idea approaching to an exact estimate of Boer forces in any scene of conflict. We may, however, fairly assume that, in the east of the Orange State, Lord Roberts, after his occupation of Bloemfontein, had to deal with the determined, well-directed efforts of 15,000 men, amply provided with artillery of every kind serviceable in the field, engaged on ground familiar to them, or, at any rate, well adapted to their methods of warfare, and fighting against foes—the British forces—who, whatever their superiority of numbers may have been, had serious difficulties to contend with in the long railway-line to be guarded against very mobile, energetic, and active enemies; and in the necessity for conveying food and warlike stores to long distances from that same imperilled line of communications.

Lord Roberts, in hoisting the British flag at Bloemfontein, had speedily and with the utmost ease achieved a success of great moral as well as military importance, planting himself firmly on the railway-road to the Transvaal, and holding a central position from which blows could be dealt forth in all directions. To that position he was, however, for some time bound through the effects, on the most active portion of the force under his command, of his recent swift and victorious advance. Horses had perished or been, for a long time, disabled in thousands, and it was needful to await the arrival of a large number of "remounts". The mere daily supply of food to the large army gathered at Bloemfontein was a formidable matter, dependent on a railway the connection of which, over the Orange River, took some time to restore; a single line certain to be frequently blocked. In addition to the food needed, of which only a small portion could be obtained from the neighbouring farmers, boots for the infantry, and warm clothing for the coming winter, were required. Lastly, before any move forward could be made in adequate strength, or any campaign undertaken to the east and south-east of Bloemfontein, it was absolutely necessary to accumulate vast stores of every

kind in that town as a great depôt, the advanced base for future operations. Hence came the long delay which caused some wonder and impatience amongst home-critics not acquainted with, or forgetful of, the absolute necessities for campaigning on a large scale in a hostile country.

We may begin our narrative with the account of a dashing little achievement of Colonel Pilcher, whom we have seen clearing rebels out of Douglas on New Year's Day. Soon after the occupation of Bloemfontein, General French was out at Thaba-nchu, a small town about forty miles due east, and on his return to the capital, after seizing some flour-mills and getting information, he left behind General Broadwood, who had, as part of his force, a battalion of mounted Colonials under Pilcher. That enterprising officer, on March 26th, with 200 of his men, pushed east to Ladybrand, forty miles away, intending to hoist the British flag and to bring back the landdrost and chief officials as prisoners. He was in the act of arresting them, attended by only a few troopers, when a message reached him that 1500 Boers were close at hand. One of the Hussars in his party, having strayed away, was approached by a Dutchman, and summoned to surrender. The British cavalryman promptly shot the man dead and galloped away to report to his commander. An instant retirement was ordered, and carried out with brilliant courage and skill. The prisoners were hauled off, though the British were at once under a heavy rifle-fire, some of which came from houses whose owners had, only a few hours before, tendered their submission. Outside the town, Major Booth, of the 5th Northumberland Fusiliers, gave valuable aid in covering the retreat by his accurate handling of a Maxim planted on the Platberg, a high flat-topped hill commanding the town. A heavy fire was thence poured into the Boers, who lost at least 25 men killed, while the British force effected its withdrawal at a cost of one man killed and five taken prisoners.

On March 29th an important action was fought near Karee Siding, about twenty miles north of Bloemfontein. A considerable force of Boers occupied some kopjes there, a few miles south of Brandfort, and were displaying much activity against burghers who had surrendered under the terms of Lord Roberts' proclamation. It was necessary for this force to be promptly

"shifted", and the British leader accordingly sent out the Seventh Division, under General Tucker, the First and Third Cavalry Brigades, under General French, and 400 New South Wales Mounted Infantry of Colonel Le Gallais' brigade, with New South Wales Lancers under Captain Cox, and three field-batteries R.A. The enemy, estimated at 2500, were entrenched on strong ground, covering Brandfort, where their main forces were concentrated. The left flank of the Boers was attacked by Chermside's brigade (Scottish Borderers, Lincolns, Norfolks, and Hants battalions), the men advancing against rough kopjes, seamed by wooded ravines, and gradually, under a vigorous fire from Boer guns and rifles, pressing back the foe towards Wavell's brigade, which had advanced towards a commanding flat-topped hill, Tafel Kop, through a wooded hollow and over stony ridges. General French, with the cavalry, made a wide détour round the enemy's right flank, having many horses killed by the continuous fire. At one point the Boer position was so steep—the sides of the kopje rising like the walls of a fortress—that the Australian Mounted Infantry, who displayed great coolness under fire, were unable to make headway until the front infantry-attack was developed. In a fight lasting from noon until six o'clock the enemy were forced from all their ground, rather through the fact that General French's horsemen had been pushed on to within cannon-range of Brandfort, and were threatening the rear, than by dint of close fighting. The Boers, with their usual cleverness, retreated in time to save their guns, nor did they seem to have suffered any serious loss. The British loss was severe, reaching nearly 200, including one officer killed and seven wounded. The advantages to Lord Roberts gained by the battle were that a fine natural position facing the great plain extending to Brandfort was acquired; the Engineers at work on a temporary railway-bridge over the Modder were relieved from danger, and the line was cleared to within a short distance of Brandfort, being now vigilantly patrolled in order to prevent the destruction of culverts and bridges. The City Imperial Volunteers, most of whom were under fire for the first time, had behaved with steady courage in advancing over open ground in the face of showers of bullets. A fact worthy of notice in connection with the British general's

difficulties in the war was that many local farmers were present with the enemy during the fighting. These men, whatever their private feelings may have been, were aware that the Johannesburg police in the Boer army, a generally riotous and ruthless set of men, would pillage their farms if they surrendered their weapons. On the other hand, they could leave their women and children at home in perfect confidence (despite the calumnious reports spread by Mr. Steyn, President Krüger, and their agents) that they would receive no harm from the British troops.

We must now record two disasters which befell British forces to the south-east and east of Bloemfontein. In connection therewith, we quote from a special correspondent:—"The Boers are making frantic efforts to regain their footing in the Free State. Commandos are appearing in all directions, apparently springing from the farms, where the people have been leniently treated by the British. The present system of liberating prisoners must prove fatal to our advance into the Transvaal. The Boers rise as soon as our troops pass, and harass our rear and threaten our railway-communications." On April 1st, a British force, comprising 500 men of the Royal Irish Rifles and the 9th Regiment Mounted Infantry, entered Dewetsdorp, about forty miles south-east of Bloemfontein, and the officer in command called upon the magistrate to surrender the keys of the public buildings. This he readily did, having previously hidden the public records, guns, and ammunition under the floors. A very wily and dangerous foe, Commandant De Wet, fresh from his success at Sanna's Post, soon to be described, was approaching from the north. Captain M'Whinnie, hearing of this movement, retired on Bethanie railway-station, 40 miles due west, and on the afternoon of April 3rd the British were overtaken by the enemy. De Wet had already sent 800 men ahead to cut off the retreat, and he then moved forward a small force against the British position, which was about eight miles east of Reddersburg. The British attacked, but soon found that they were surrounded on all sides. The enemy had three guns, the British had none. It was rifles, out of range, against artillery freely hurling shells. Before darkness fell, the entrapped men were under fire on three sides, and at two in the morning of April 4th the British had expended their last cartridge. At sunrise the Boers opened

again with shell, but the doomed force held out in the hope that the sound of the enemy's guns would attract a relieving force. At 10 a.m. the position was such as to compel surrender. Two officers and 8 men had been killed, 2 officers and 33 men wounded; 8 officers and about 460 non-coms. and men became prisoners of war, and were sent under escort to Thaba-nchu. Another significant despatch states the consequence of this disaster. "The Free Staters at Reddersburg who took the oath of allegiance when the British forces occupied the place have now risen again, and joined the Boer forces who are advancing upon the town. The citizens have torn down the British flag and hoisted the Free State colours."

As a relief, we note that at this time excellent order, under the control of General Pretyman, prevailed in Bloemfontein, Lord Roberts declaring, during an address at a temperance meeting, that "he was proud to command the best-behaved army in the world"; that a great many trains with supplies were daily arriving; that the men were in the best of spirits and eager to move forward; and that the much-needed "remounts" were coming in. The 8th Hussars brought in 700 horses from Norval's Pont, the journey, by road, taking eight days, the horses grazing on the veldt, and arriving in good condition. An important rearrangement of forces, with a view to future operations, was made in forming the whole of the mounted infantry into one division, commanded by General Ian Hamilton. The first brigade, under Colonel Hutton, comprised all the Australian, New Zealand, and Canadian troops, except the Australian cavalry, with a proportionate number of regulars. The second, under Colonel Ridley, consisted of South African irregulars, with the same proportion of regular mounted infantry.

The second disaster is known as that of Koorn Spruit, or Sanna's Post, and was specially annoying in the serious loss of guns. Colonel Broadwood, in command of a small mixed column, hampered by a slow-moving convoy, was retiring, at the end of March, from Thaba-nchu, about 40 miles due east of Bloemfontein, hard pressed by a much superior force of Boers, whom he could only keep at a distance by the skilful disposition of his forces in successive rear-guard actions. He was marching for the Waterworks near Sanna's Post, 21 miles from the

capital, and the enemy, gathering strength as they came, began to overlap him on each flank in spite of every effort to check them. When news reached Lord Roberts, he sent out Colvile's division, with artillery, and Colonel Martyr's brigade of Mounted Infantry and Irregular Horse on a forced march eastwards. They left Bloemfontein some hours before daybreak on March 31st, but were too late to do more than cover the retreat of the fragments of Broadwood's force. At 4 a.m. on that day, Broadwood, having crossed the Modder River, had halted his men to bivouac, worn out as they were by a long night-march which had entailed incessant vigilance. At dawn the column was shelled by the Boers and attacked on three sides. The commander at once despatched his two Horse-Artillery batteries and the baggage, covered by the cavalry, towards Bloemfontein. Ahead was a deep nullah called Koorn Spruit, two miles short of Sanna's Post and the Waterworks, and in this nullah were hidden some hundreds of Boer riflemen. The leading scouts passed over the drift without any suspicion of peril, and fire was opened by the enemy as the wagons and guns entered the hollow. Many of the drivers and artillery horses were shot down, and five guns of U Battery were at once captured, one gun being saved by the team "stampeding" without the drivers. Sergeant-major Martin ran back to warn Major Hornby, who, in command of Q Battery, was barely a hundred yards away on the road, hemmed in by Boers. He gave the order to unlimber and come into action, but could not open fire while the British and the enemy were mixed up together among baggage-wagons. A body of Rimington's Scouts, striving to save the captured guns, suffered heavy loss. Two troops of Roberts' Horse, acting as escort for the convoy, dashed forward to cross the spruit and take the enemy in flank and rear, but found themselves in the midst of more ambushed foes, and were shot down or captured almost to a man. The Boers came into the open in the most audacious way, one body charging close up to a Maxim and shooting down the detachment. Hornby limbered up to gallop out of the close mêleé, and in this movement two more guns were lost, one through being upset on rough ground, another by the falling of the two wheel-horses. While noble but useless efforts were being made to retake the guns, Hornby with his four

remaining weapons, and the untaken gun of U Battery, recaptured after the stampede of the horses, galloped southwards to a position 1200 yards from Koorn Spruit, and opened fire with a cool daring and effect that startled the Boers, in order to cover the retirement of the cavalry and mounted infantry of the rear-guard. Shelled at from right and left, smitten by storms of rifle-bullets, the splendid R.H.A. gunners of Q Battery never flinched, but loaded and aimed as if at target-practice, and checked several attempts at a rush, while the remnants of the scattered force retired towards the station-buildings. There so fierce a stand was made for two hours that the enemy did not dare to come close. Then the advanced guard of the force sent out by Lord Roberts appeared, and the Queenslanders of Colonel Martyr's mounted infantry came sweeping across the veldt to the rescue. These brave men fell into another trap, but Colonel Henry advanced with all his companies of mounted regulars, and gradually drove the foe before him. This diversion enabled Broadwood to gather in his scattered men, and, with Hornby's battery covering them, they retired to a hill called Boesman's Kop, where the enemy could not reach them. The Boers then withdrew with their prize of war to Thaba-nchu. In addition to the guns, 80 baggage-wagons full of stores were lost, and 350 officers and men were killed, wounded, and missing, over 200 being prisoners. The Waterworks were also, for a time, in possession of the Boers, which caused some inconvenience at Bloemfontein.

The force engaged against Broadwood, and in the region to the east and south-east of Bloemfontein, was estimated at 20,000 men, and it was evident that serious efforts were needed for the conquest of that portion of the Orange State. The operations were entrusted mainly to Major-gen. (local Lieut.-gen.) Sir Henry Macleod Leslie Rundle, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., commanding the Eighth Division. This able officer, born in 1856, entered the Royal Artillery in 1876, and served in the Zulu and Transvaal campaigns in 1879–81, being present at the victory of Ulundi over the Zulus, and in the heroic defence of Potchefstroom against the Boer rebels. Wounded at the latter place, he was mentioned in despatches in both those wars. In 1882, Rundle served in Egypt, taking part in the victory of Tel-el-Kebir, and in the following year he joined the Egyptian army, serving with that force in

1884–85 in the Nile Expedition on the lines of communication, where he earned fresh mention in despatches and a brevet-majority. From 1885 to 1898 the rising young officer served with distinction in Egypt as a military administrator and in the field. In 1885–6–7–9, and in 1891, he was engaged in operations of the Frontier Field Force, commanding the mounted corps at Sarras, and the artillery at Toski, and winning his D.S.O and a brevet-lieut.-colonelcy. In 1891 he was present at the capture of Tokar, and in 1896 he was Chief of the Staff to Kitchener in the Dongola campaign, becoming K.C.B. and Major-general. In 1897–98 Rundle, as Chief of Staff in the Khartoum campaign, was at Omdurman as a trusted adviser of the victorious Sirdar. In December, 1898, he took command of the South-Eastern Military District at home. When the Boer war began, Rundle replaced, for a time, Sir Francis Clery as Deputy-Adj.-general to the Forces in England, and in December, 1899, he was appointed to the command of the Eighth Division in South Africa, where he was destined to render invaluable aid to Lord Roberts.

The first operations on a large scale were devoted to the relief of a considerable British force invested by the Boers near Wepener, a little town close to the border of Basutoland, about sixty miles south-east of Bloemfontein. A part of the Colonial Division, under Colonel Dalgety, had been hurried up from Aliwal North to hold the Jammersberg bridge over the large River Caledon, a very important strategical point about three miles north of Wepener. The force commanded by Dalgety numbered about 1700 men, and consisted of Cape Mounted Rifles, Royal Scots Mounted Infantry, Kaffrarian Rifles, Driscoll's Scouts, and Brabant's Horse, with two 15-pounder field-guns, two naval 12-pounders, two 7-pounders, one Hotchkiss, and three Maxims. On the afternoon of April 7th, the men arrived and were soon entrenched on a succession of low ridges and kopjes in the form of a rough semicircle around the bridge-head. The fault of the position—with the camp in the hollow of the half-saucer—was its extent, which needed, for proper holding, about 4000 men instead of far less than half that number. On the morning of April 9th, the Boers, about 5000 strong, entrenched around three sides of the British position, opened with a heavy shell-fire from eight guns, one "pom-pom", and a Maxim, supported by a terrific rifle-

fire. This bombardment, maintained throughout the day, caused a loss of 7 men killed and 41 wounded, chiefly among the Cape Rifles. On the following day the Boer firing was renewed, the British guns being very active, and at night a close attack on the Cape Rifles' trenches was repulsed. For sixteen days, under dire discomfort and peril, shelled and "sniped" at from the front and both flanks, and sometimes closely assaulted, the gallant force under Dalgety held out. The damage done to the trenches could only be repaired at night by the wearied men, and without this toil the position would have been untenable. Heavy rain filled the trenches with water, while the soldiers, who had been campaigning for nearly seven months, were ill-clad for protection against the damp and the cold nights. The carcases of many horses and oxen, killed by the enemy's fire, polluted the air. Cooking could only be done at night in dongas and behind cover, and when the food reached the occupants of the trenches it was icy cold. The strain of the siege on body and mind was terrible, and the limit of human endurance was almost reached. Over 3000 shells, from first to last, were hurled at the besieged, who lost, in all, 33 killed and 132 wounded. We must now see the work of the forces despatched to the relief of the brave beleaguered men.

Over 30,000 troops were employed by Lord Roberts in this series of operations. Generals Brabant and Hart, advancing from the south, where they had been stationed at and near Rouxville, drove the Boers from Bushman's Kop, about midway to Wepener, on April 22nd, after a day's fighting. On the 23rd, Brabant had a running fight all day, pressing the enemy before him, and he bivouacked that night within eight miles of Wepener, after receiving from Dalgety a heliographic message "All well". General Rundle, moving from the north-west on April 20th, came in contact with the enemy four miles south-west of Dewetsdorp, at a place called Wakkerstroom. Received with a heavy fire from rifles and guns, the British leader replied vigorously with his artillery, and, sending the mounted infantry round the Boer left flank, forced the foe back to a ridge two miles away, and occupied their first position. On the following day (April 21st) Rundle, finding the enemy too strong for further attack, entrenched himself, and frustrated several attempts to turn his right, while he awaited the action of other columns. As part of the complicated

scheme devised by Lord Roberts, General Pole-Carew left Bloemfontein at dawn on Sunday, April 22nd, with the Eleventh Division (the Guards and the 18th Brigades), and marched to Leeuw Kop, a strong position held by the Boers about fifteen miles south-east of the capital. The main attack was delivered by Col. Stephenson's Brigade (the 18th), moving towards the right in extended order, with the 2nd Royal Warwicks in the centre, the Essex on the right, the Welsh on the left, and the Yorkshires in reserve. The Warwickshires, who were the first to advance, moved towards a farmhouse partially hidden by a thick wood, and found the place evacuated. Posting a Maxim under cover of a wall, the men pressed on towards the steep slope of the kopjes. The Welsh moved forward steadily, under the fire of a "pom-pom" on a ridge to their left, and found the ground in their front strongly occupied. The enemy, at first showing themselves freely, were driven to cover by shrapnel and by the fire from naval guns. The British advance was slow, owing to the exposed nature of the ground, and darkness was drawing on before any visible impression was made on the enemy, who maintained a severe fire of rifles and small shell. Then the Welsh, aided by the cavalry and a battery of horse-artillery, made a turning movement from the north, while the attack from the south was vigorously pressed, the infantry making a series of short rushes accompanied by volleys. The Boers were already in retreat to the east, and, just as the sun was setting over the wide expanse of veldt, a cheer was raised along the British line, and the men, springing to their feet, dashed forward—the Essex battalion leading—up the grassy slope. The hill was won, and the troops bivouacked near the farm. A junction was soon afterwards made with General Rundle's force, and on April 25th General Chermside's Division (the Third), moving up from Rundle's left rear, occupied Dewetsdorp. The seizure of this place practically assured the relief of Wepener, which took place on the same day. During Pole-Carew's operations, valuable aid had been afforded by General French, acting with his strong cavalry-force to the south-east of Leeuw Kop, and clearing the road for the advance of the Eleventh Division towards General Rundle.

Due east of Bloemfontein, General Ian Hamilton's Mounted Infantry, and Smith-Dorrien's and MacDonald's Brigades, all

under General Colvile, marching out towards Thaba-nchu, re-occupied the Waterworks near Sanna's Post on April 24th, while General French, advancing from the neighbourhood of Dewetsdorp, pursued the fleeing Boers towards Thaba-nchu and Ladybrand. On April 27th, the forces under French, Ian Hamilton, and Smith-Dorrien were all at Thaba-nchu, with Rundle's Division only 8 miles to the south. The display of strength made by Lord Roberts, and some actual fighting, with slight loss to his forces, had thus driven the enemy completely away from the positions near the railway on the east, but the extreme mobility of the Boers and their knowledge of the country, aided by information obtained from the double-dealing farmers of the district, frustrated the diligent efforts made by French to overtake and surround the commandos. Sharper measures were now adopted with the burghers who, treated with undue leniency, had taken the field after pretended submission. In the district around Leeuw Kop, Generals Pole-Carew and Stephenson, in the last days of April, acting on information supplied by the Intelligence Department, sent bodies of men to visit farms, and the officers in command, finding a large number of rifles concealed in the houses and premises, carried off thousands of cattle, sheep, and horses, commandeered the forage, and burned the outhouses containing meal and other provisions which they were unable to take away. About a dozen men bearing arms were made prisoners of war. During these operations, an intercepted letter from a Boer engaged in fighting, addressed to his wife at the farm, advised her to make every use of opportunities for trade afforded by the presence of the British forces. This kind of "smartness" or "slimness" was met by General Pole-Carew with orders to his officers that, wherever a farm had no male occupants, all the horses should be seized, unless proof were given that the males were either prisoners or absent on legitimate business. All forage likely to be useful to the enemy was to be taken and paid for. The effect of the new system of dealing with the foe was shown in the reply of a young Transvaaler prisoner to a question, "How long he thought the war was likely to last?" "Not long, if this continues", said the man, as he glanced at a long train of commandeered cattle, sheep, and forage.

Towards the middle of May, General Rundle was advancing with slow, skilful persistence, in an extended, enveloping line, on Ladybrand, paralysing the enemy without needless bloodshed, and capturing, or receiving the surrender of, hundreds of Free Staters in his progress. Large supplies of flour were obtained at Newberry Mills, and the abundance of stock and horse-feed found in the country reduced the British transport to a convenient amount. On May 15th Ladybrand was occupied by the Glamorgan Yeomanry. The country through which Rundle had moved, with Brabant on his right, sweeping clean the district on the Basuto border, was one lined by kopjes affording positions of the greatest strength. The British general, with excellent results, was coolly pitting his brain against that of the Boer leaders, and he reaped his reward in the success, with trifling loss of life to his own force, which is a commander's best title to fame. A rash, impetuous general might have lost his whole army in a succession of deadly traps in that particular region of warlike movements. Trusting nothing to luck, and all to caution, General Rundle made it his motto that it was better to lose a couple of days than two battalions, and the enemy found that at last they had fairly met their match, for their own peculiar tactics, in a British leader.

We may here take occasion to explain the method of action by which Boer commanders were enabled, throughout the war, to the frequent bewilderment and disgust of British readers of news at home, to carry away their guns even after decisive defeat in action. We may first, however, note their artful way in laying traps. A body of British scouts inspect a line of kopjes, and find the positions void of the foe. Their every movement has been watched by Boer pickets, falling back unseen as the British advance, and the enemy know that report will be made at headquarters that the kopjes are unoccupied. Woe to the general who always blindly trusts such tidings from his scouts. It was true for them, but, with the utmost swiftness, the lightly-equipped foe, by passes known only to themselves, may have hurried back to the hills and secretly taken up positions for deadly attack on an advancing force. In regard to retirement with transport and guns, all the live stock and the heavy wagons were sent off as soon as flanking movements made by British mounted men began

to threaten the rear-communications. Cape-carts were ready for baggage that could not be sent with the heavy convoy. Most of the big guns went off with the first wagons, one or two, easily moved, being kept to check a British advance, while the vicious, deadly little "pom-poms" were hurried about from kopje to kopje, throwing in a stream of one-pound shells from the least suspected points. When the flanking movements compelled a general retreat, the horses were harnessed to the light Cape-carts; the loading was packed, and at a gallop, along with the light guns, the swift hardy ponies swept them off, having too long a start for anything but the best of British "hunters", in the height of condition, to overtake them. The Boer riflemen, with their horses at hand, held the heights to the last moment, and they too at last scurried away at a pace defying pursuit.

On May 27th, General Rundle, after little opposition from the enemy, was in possession of Senekal, about 60 miles north of Ladybrand, and then a smart bit of fighting occurred between Major Dalbiac, with a dozen men of the Middlesex Yeomanry, and about forty Boers in good cover. The little party of British boldly attacked and drove off the enemy, with the loss of above half their own number, including their officer killed. On the following days, Rundle's men were hotly engaged to the north-east of Senekal against the enemy well posted on high kopjes with several guns. The Grenadiers, Scots Guards, and West Kents were in action, behaving splendidly under a very heavy fire, but they could not force the enemy from their ground. The British guns had fired 800 rounds, inflicting heavy loss on the foe, of whom Commandant de Villiers was severely wounded. The object of the British leader's movement had been attained, in drawing off the Boers from Lindley, about 40 miles to the north-east, where a British detachment was in danger of being hemmed in. At the same time, General Brabant was holding the country near Ficksburg, on the Basuto border, about 40 miles south-east of Senekal, communicating with Rundle by way of Hammonia. The force menaced at Lindley was under Sir H. Colvile, and the skilful manœuvres of Rundle, in marching out from Senekal as if for Bethlehem, midway between the two places, to the north-east, drew off the enemy's forces to meet him, and, enabling reinforcements to arrive at Lindley, gave the

British possession of that place, and of Heilbron, about 40 miles north of Lindley. In the first week of June, the troops in the east of the Orange River State were greatly encouraged by news of the capitulation of Pretoria, an event to be soon noticed, and on June 6th General Rundle, riding in person to each of his camps to convey the intelligence, was received with tremendous hurrahs, a salute of 21 guns being fired in honour of the success obtained. There was still, as will be seen hereafter, much to be done before the Orange River territory was subdued. In the north-east of the country, near Bethlehem, the rugged and mountainous ground, greatly resembling that in northern Natal, renders it extremely difficult for military operations.

We must conclude this section of our record by noting two disasters which befel the British forces in the north of the country. On May 31st, the 13th Battalion of Imperial Yeomanry, comprising four companies, each of 121 men, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Spragge, was surrounded, overwhelmed, and forced to surrender, near Lindley, to a very superior force of the enemy. The fighting continued for part of two days. Lord Roberts, on hearing of the attack, despatched Lord Methuen, in hot haste, to assist the force. Starting on June 1st, Methuen, being one march on the Heilbron side of Kroonstad when he received the telegram, marched 44 miles in 25 hours by 10 a.m. on the following day, but was too late to rescue the hapless Yeomanry. He promptly attacked the Boers, between 2000 and 3000 strong, and completely routed them after a running fight of five hours. The captured battalion included many men belonging to the highest circles in society, being made up of the Dublin and Belfast Yeomanry and the Duke of Cambridge's Own, and was styled, on account of the wealth represented in its ranks, the "Millionaires", the "Kid Glove Brigade", and so forth.

The other end of the social scale was represented in the misfortune which befel the 4th (Militia) Battalion of the Derbyshire Regiment, or "Sherwood Foresters", embodied in December, 1899, for service in South Africa, for which the men had volunteered, under the command of Colonel Napier Pearse and Lieut.-col. Wilkinson. There were two separate phases in this disaster. On June 4th Captain Grant, with 4 officers and 56 men, twelve of whom were without rifles, found himself temporary commandant

at Roodeval railway-station, near the Rhenoster River, north of Kroonstad and half-way to the Transvaal territory. He was proceeding up country to rejoin his regiment, taking with him stores and warm clothing. At 5 p.m. serious news arrived of Boer movements, menacing the British communications. A force of 100 men was stated to be on the river at a drift 8 miles from the line, and a body of equal strength was advancing on Roodeval Station. Captain Grant promptly wired to Kroonstad for reinforcements, and then worked hard for two days, making a fortification with bales of clothing, mail-bags, and stores, and arranging his men for defence of the post. Men of the Railway Pioneer Regiment—a party of 50 or 60—arrived, and a company of the 4th Derbyshires, the rest of that battalion marching up to the Rhenoster on the afternoon of June 6th. At dawn on June 7th, the Boers began to play on Roodeval Station from the east with a gun posted at 800 yards' range. The British rifle-fire was good enough to compel a retirement to a Kaffir kraal 2000 yards away, whence, for over six hours, shells were poured into the British post. Northwards, there was another Boer gun; a third away west, out of rifle-range; a fourth, being an Armstrong captured at Sanna's Post, due west; another Armstrong, of like origin for the enemy, and also out of range, to south-east. The last three guns were brought up during the last hour of a defence maintained from daybreak until about 11 a.m., and then it became clear to Captain Grant that the case was hopeless. His little force had lost heavily; his rude defences were destroyed; the station was swept by shell-fire from end to end. About 150 rifles had for seven hours kept at bay 1200 men with five guns, and then there was nothing for it but a most honourable surrender. The other Derbyshires, at Rhenoster River, were simply caught in a trap through lack of due precaution, or, in other words, negligence to occupy in proper force kopjes commanding the camp. At daybreak on June 7th, the Boers opened with guns on the kopjes and on the camp, and the western end of the hills was soon in their possession. The British force was enfiladed, as well as attacked in front, by four of our own captured guns—12- and 15-pounders and a small quick-firer—playing on them from different points, while the men were also raked with rifle-fire from foes under cover, who could scarcely ever be seen. About 10 a.m. the

position was impossible for longer endurance, and the white flag was raised. Lieut.-col. Wilkinson had been wounded; Lieut.-col. Baird-Douglas (attached) of the 3rd Cameron Highlanders, was dead, after being twice hit; four other officers were disabled; and about 140 men out of 600 were out of action, 36 being killed. In the two disasters to the Derbyshires, nearly 700 men had fallen into the hands of Christian De Wet. We turn now to the victorious advance of Lord Roberts on the capital of the South African Republic.

The British Commander-in-chief, slow to move until all was ready, was swift to strike when the hour for action came. After about seven weeks' halt, Lord Roberts and his Staff, soon after daylight on May-morning, appeared in the market-square at Bloemfontein. The leading files of the Guards' Brigade came in view, followed by the Eleventh (Pole-Carew's) Division, and the whole force, taking two sides of the square, marched past the Field-marshal, and went to Karee Siding, 22 miles on the road to Brandfort, being joined there, on May 3rd, by Lord Roberts and the Staff. General Tucker, with his Division (the Seventh) moved from Glen, about 10 miles north of Bloemfontein, to co-operate on the east, while Gen. Ian Hamilton, with a portion of French's Cavalry Division, guarded his right flank. Gen. Hutton (1st Brigade of Ian Hamilton's Mounted Infantry Division) did like service to the westward. Each division was attended by brigades of artillery and a force of mounted infantry. The siege-guns, comprising the naval 4·7 and 12-pounders, and the big 5-inch R.A. guns, were with the centre advance, under the immediate supervision of Lord Roberts. We deal first with some notable work done to the east, as a portion of the operations of the general advance to the Vaal River. Sir Leslie Rundle, at Thaba-nchu, was holding at bay the left and centre of the Boer forces, while Ian Hamilton, with a flanking movement against the enemy's right, drove them, on May 1st, out of a strong position at Houtnek, forcing the foe away to the east and north, with the loss of 26 prisoners, including a commandant and 16 other wounded men. The killed and wounded among the enemy included a German and a Russian officer, the latter being commander of the "Foreign Legion"; two Frenchmen, and nineteen other foreigners.

A striking part of the day's work lay in the achievement of

a party of Gordon Highlanders, at a terrible cost to their commander. The enemy, six thousand strong, were under the cool, crafty, long-headed, resourceful Louis Botha, and it was only by great pains and care that Rundle and Ian Hamilton were enabled to deceive him and to manœuvre his force away from the road to his base at Kroonstad. It was during Ian Hamilton's flanking move round their right, 10 miles north of Thaba-nchu, that Captain Towse, a fine, strong, active officer,—courteous, handsome, brave—with about 50 Gordons, got isolated from the main body of British troops. The Boers, with their usual dexterity and quickness, made up their minds to a capture, and closed in upon the little party of kilted men with fully five times their number, and in triumphant tones called on them to throw down their arms and surrender. It was a picturesque scene. On all sides rose the bleak, black kopjes, ridge on ridge. On one hand stood the Highlanders, in the colours of their clan, as seen in kilt and stocking; on the other the wild, motley crew of Boers—boys, old men, lads, shoulder to shoulder with fighters in the prime of manhood, with unkempt beards falling on ragged shirt-fronts. After the summons to surrender, given in English with a Dutch accent, the rifle-barrels for a moment were pointing towards the little group standing their ground like the mountain-pines of Scotland. Then, from their leader, came in a proud, clear voice "Fix bayonets, Gordons!" Rifle-shots from the Boers laid men dead and wounded, and the words "Charge, Gordons, charge!" rang out. Towse and his men, thinking of Magersfontein, dashed on over rocks and clefts against the ranks of the foe, and swept right through them, with the bayonet against the clubbed rifle, vainly wielded to ward off steel. The wild cry of the victors echoed among the gullies of the hills as the Boers fled, leaving scores of dead on the ground. When the Gordons turned to gather up their own fallen, they found that their leader was blinded for life by a bullet which, missing the brain, had destroyed both eyes.

The advance of Lord Roberts was so swift, so well-managed in its outflanking movements, that the Boers were completely and easily overcome. On May 3rd, Brandfort was captured by a combined movement of Tucker's and Pole-Carew's divisions on the east and centre, and Hutton's mounted infantry to the west. The mounted infantry then set off for Vet River, with the infantry

following, while Ian Hamilton made for Winburg, about 40 miles north-east of Brandfort, and the Highland Brigade, under Hector MacDonald, moved against the enemy's right flank. On May 5th, Hamilton seized Winburg, making the enemy's position in the centre, facing Lord Roberts, untenable. The grandeur of the British leader's plans and performances can be duly estimated only when we consider that, in reality, the whole of the British troops from the extreme south-western border of the Transvaal, at Warrenton (on the road to Mafeking, let us note), right across country to the Basutoland border, a distance of 200 miles, were simultaneously making offensive movements, and thus rendering it impossible for the enemy to mass themselves at any one point to impede the advance. The great host at Lord Roberts' command was thus being utilized, in a scientific way, in many movements each of which had its special meaning and importance. The Boer army had been broken up into sections, and the continual movement of their foes put re-junction of the units beyond the power of the most able leader.

About an hour after mid-day on May 5th, the Western Australians, acting as scouts to Pole-Carew's division, came into contact with the enemy, who were ready to dispute the passage of the Vet River, about 20 miles north-east of Brandfort. Two British batteries R.A. opened fire, the Boers replying with several guns, and a hot artillery-duel ensued, in which two of our naval guns, two 4·7 pieces and a 5-inch siege-gun at last took part. The enemy's fire was, for three hours, so violent that the troops could not approach the river for crossing. Late in the afternoon, Hutton and his men reached the drift to the west, held by the foe with two guns, one being a Maxim. On the British side, some Maxims and a "pom-pom" (1-lb. sheller) were got to work with such effect that the Boers were driven back from the river-bed, and kept under a terrific fire in retreat. Then General Hutton made his way across, capturing a Maxim and some prisoners, the enemy having 40 killed during the resistance. This turning-movement, as usual, cleared the way for the main body, the whole of whom crossed the Vet. Just before dark, a party of 26 West Australians, without orders, "rushed" a small kopje, and held the position during the night, with the aid of two companies of the Guards sent forward when

the brave deed was observed. Dawn of day found all the Boer forces fled to the north by train, blowing up culverts and bridges behind them. The Engineers quickly repaired damages by making slight diversions in the line. The advance-guard of the British force occupied Smaldeel Station, and reconnoitring by Hutton's, Broadwood's and Hamilton's scouts found the enemy in great force on the north bank of the Zand (or Sand) River, about 30 miles, by the railway route, north of the Vet.

By May 9th the divisions of Pole-Carew and Tucker had arrived, the British forces being spread out along the south bank of the river for a distance of over 25 miles, with Hutton on the left, and Ian Hamilton away to the east. An artillery-engagement ensued, and early on the morning of May 10th a crossing was effected. Pole-Carew, with the Gordons, a battery of R.H.A., and mounted infantry, crossed at a drift (ford) near the railway-bridge, while Hutton and French went over, 12 miles to the west, at another drift, and worked round to the north-east, pushing the enemy towards the centre, in which work they met with a stout opposition. Hamilton, on the right, also encountered stubborn resistance, but advanced, slowly and surely, towards Ventersburg, about 40 miles north of Winburg. Meanwhile, cavalry and mounted infantry had reached Ventersburg Road Station, only 22 miles from Kroonstad. As a part of the general advance we may note that, far away to the west, over 50 miles north of Kimberley, the troops under General Paget and Sir Archibald Hunter were driving the enemy headlong from the Vaal River at Warrenton, and occupied Fourteen Streams. As Lord Roberts went forward, sweeping the country over a vast area, a strict examination of farmhouses was made. Nearly every one was found to be a small arsenal of Mauser and Martini rifles, and abundant ammunition. These were, of course, removed by the troops; any men found on the premises were made prisoners; and large supplies of forage were taken, ample provisions being left for the women and children. Thus was the rear of the advancing force secured against risings after pretended submission. At this time Major general Hildyard, C.B., was placed in command of the Fifth Division, as successor to Sir Charles Warren. The new commander, who entered the army in 1867, passed his regimental service in the Highland

Light Infantry; held many staff-appointments, including that of Commandant of the Staff College; and, in the first Egyptian Expedition, was present in the actions of Kassassin and Tel-el-Kebir.

The advance of Lord Roberts continued to resemble a triumphal march, meeting no opposition that could seriously delay his progress General French, on the left, having left Bloemfontein on May 7th, went at the rate of 30 miles a day, and in six days was to the north of Kroonstad. After crossing the Zand, the great cavalry-leader came into contact with the enemy, and a reverse befel a mixed squadron of Scots Greys, Inniskillings, Carabineers, and Australian Horse, sent out by Colonel Porter to occupy a hill commanding the enemy's flank and rear. After some opposition this was effected, but the retirement of the enemy was nothing but a ruse. As the British force, having dismounted, were engaged in examining a horse-kraal on the top of the hill, the Boers suddenly opened fire from an entrenched position farther along the ridge, killing many horses, of which forty were afterwards found lying within the space of an acre. The unwounded animals were "stampeded", and the enemy then, in overwhelming force, advanced over the open ground, and captured nearly the whole body of troopers, who had no means of retreat from mounted men. A piece of retaliation came soon afterwards when the enemy, to meet an outflanking move, came down into the plain, and were charged by the 8th Hussars. The cavalry, with swords drawn, got well home among the foe, killing or wounding many stragglers, and driving the main body back to the hilly ground. The practical collapse of the Free State was drawing near.

President Steyn, after the capture of Bloemfontein, had made Kroonstad his new capital, and there was much "tall talk" among the burghers as to the stand to be made there in impregnable positions. Impregnable they may have been to frontal attacks, but not to flank-movements made by capable leaders. On May 11th, Lord Roberts reported his head-quarters, with Pole-Carew's division, as being near Geneva Siding, 14 miles from Kroonstad, with Tucker and his men to south-east, and Ian Hamilton farther east. On the next day, the British leader was at Boschrand, only 8 miles from the town ahead, and

SURRENDER OF KROONSTAD

The surrender of Kroonstad, a chief town of the (then) Orange Free State, on the main line of railway, about midway between Brandfort and the Transvaal frontier, took place without opposition on May 12th, 1900. At 1 p.m. on that day the khaki-clad troops, covered with dust, but in fine condition, marched past their victorious leader, Lord Roberts, amidst the enthusiastic cheers of a large crowd, many of whom had donned red, white, and blue favours.

64

THE SURRENDER OF KROONSTAD: THE MARCH PAST LORD ROBERTS.

reported that French's cavalry had seized a drift over the Valsche River, near Kroonstad, "just in time to prevent the passage being opposed by the enemy". On the same day (May 12th) the Commander-in-chief wired home "I entered Kroonstad without opposition at 1.30 p.m., when the Union Jack was hoisted amid the cheers of the few British residents". Lord Roberts made his entry at the head of his Colonial body-guard, followed by Pole-Carew's division (the Guards and the 18th Brigade). The enemy had been paralyzed by the sight of the great, ubiquitous mounted force of foes, and had "bolted" from the town and neighbourhood without a show of fight. Their departure from the "impregnable" place had its ludicrous side. The Boers, consisting of both Transvaalers and Free Staters, in position at Boschrand, were seized with a panic late on May 11th, and to the number of about 8000 passed through Kroonstad, with their guns, in full flight. Steyn, sjambok in hand, stood at the river-drift cajoling and threatening, but the burghers could be rallied neither by eloquence nor blows. The Irish-American brigade, having absorbed "Dutch courage" in the form of whisky looted from a store, set fire to the railway goods-sheds. The conquering British troops were close at hand, and Steyn went off in a carriage drawn by eight horses. The Free State burghers had declared their resolve to go back to their farms, a threat which most of them promptly carried out. In truth, these honest, misguided men had come to know that their President had led them into a quarrel with which they had no real concern, and from a participation in which they could not possibly gain any advantage. The mendacious promises of intervention from Europe by which they had been for a time kept together had no further power in the face of events. The Transvaalers, who throughout the campaign had shown very scanty consideration for their allies, dropped all pretence of friendship, and made straight for their own country, leaving the smaller republic to its fate.

In the western scene of operations at this time, Lord Methuen, on May 18th, entered Hoopstad, about 80 miles due west of Kroonstad, without opposition, receiving the surrender of two commandants and 40 men, and seizing 250 rifles and between 400,000 and 500,000 rounds of ammunition. A field-cornet and

86 burghers surrendered, on May 19th, at Boshof, and similar incidents occurred elsewhere. During a brief halt at Kroonstad, the repair of the railway was rapidly effected, and vast stores of supplies were brought up in readiness for a further advance. At this time the spirit actuating the volunteers at the front was well illustrated by a wonderful piece of marching performed by a detachment of 105 Norfolk men, who came into camp at Kroonstad looking perfectly fresh, after completing 22 miles in five hours, without a single man falling out on the road.

The next step forward on the advance towards the Vaal was to Rhenoster River, on the north bank of which the enemy had prepared entrenchments in a strong position. Lord Roberts, as usual, came, saw, and, on May 23rd, passed over without opposition, the Boers having fled on tidings of Ian Hamilton's occupation of Heilbron, threatening their rear, and of French's cavalry reaching Prospect, 12 miles north of the river. The bridge over the Rhenoster, several culverts, and some miles of railway had been destroyed, the Irish contingent, with a due regard to Fenian precedents, having been specially appointed "operators" of the Boer dynamite-train. On May 24th, the Queen's birthday, the advancing army was at Vredefort Road Station, only two marches distant from the Vaal. The Commander-in-chief's wonderful energy at this time was noted by British correspondents, who reported Lord Roberts as up before daybreak, riding hard till the afternoon, halting to place himself in connection with the wires, and receiving and answering telegrams. On May 28th an event of great importance in the history of the British empire occurred. At noon, with imposing ceremony, in presence of a vast concourse of British residents and troops, the town gay with fluttering flags, the annexation of the Orange State was formally proclaimed, in the market-square at Bloemfontein, by the Military Governor, General Pretyman. The tidings was received with consternation and disgust by the "Bond party" in Cape Colony, and by the few "pro-Boers" in the British Isles. The massed bands of the Sixth Division, forming the garrison under General Kelly-Kenny, played in front of the club balcony, crowded with ladies among whom were seen Lady Roberts and her two daughters. In a clear voice heard all over the square, amid impressive silence,

General Pretyman read Lord Roberts' proclamation annexing the Orange Free State, conquered by Her Majesty's forces, to the Queen's dominions, and declaring that the territory would be henceforth known as the "Orange River Colony". Loud cheers arose, and grew in volume as Lord Acheson unfurled the Royal Standard, and the bands struck up the National Anthem, in which all the spectators vigorously joined. The ceremony concluded with loud applause for the Queen, Lord Roberts, and the British Army, and a salute of 21 guns. On the previous day, Lord Roberts had crossed the Vaal, at Viljoen's Drift, into the territory ruled by President Krüger. The Field-marshal, without ceremony or cheering, passed the river alongside the transport, as soon as Colonel Henry and his mounted infantry had driven a mob of Irish-Americans out of the village on the south side. Pole-Carew's and Tucker's divisions followed the Commander-in-chief, and Vereeniging Station was at once occupied. The triumphant march of the troops was watched by the black coal-miners, who had a holiday granted. The Vaal had been first crossed three days previously (on May 24th) by the mounted force, to the west of the railway, and by General French and Ian Hamilton. The retiring enemy had been able, in their haste, to destroy only one span of the railway-bridge. Most of the Free Staters among the hostile forces had now retired to their farms, awed by the sight of British troops sweeping the country in all directions.

From the Vaal to Johannesburg is less than 40 miles, and on May 28th more than half that distance was traversed by the British vanguard. At Klip River Station the Boers had barely time to get their guns aboard a train leaving for the north before the West Australian mounted infantry dashed in. Several prepared positions between the Vaal and the Klip had been abandoned through the unnerving effect of the wide-spread British movements, and the farmers of the district were coming in to surrender their rifles and "mounts". French and Ian Hamilton were engaged with the enemy miles away to the west, and on May 29th a battle was fought at Doornkop, on ground which was the scene of Dr. Jameson's disaster in the "Raid". General French found the Boers occupying strongly entrenched positions covering Florida, a small township west of

Johannesburg, and that town itself, from the south. Cavalry alone could not force the enemy away, and Ian Hamilton, who was in charge of the troops engaged, sent forward two infantry-brigades, with some field-guns and two 5-inch pieces. A wide turning movement, 5 miles to the west, was also going on, the enemy there stubbornly contesting every ridge. In the end, the Boer right was turned, and the infantry, in the front attack, steadily advancing, and often meeting a determined resistance, drove the enemy from every kopje. The Gordon Highlanders, on open ground, came within 15 yards of the enemy, losing heavily, and then fixed bayonets and charged, causing an instant flight of the foe. The City of London Imperial Volunteers, who had been bravely fighting all day, followed up the enemy after darkness fell, aided by the light of the bush-fires, kindled by the Boers, which were raging on all sides. The matter ended with a complete "stampede" of the enemy, numbering about 4000 men, under General Delarey. The British cavalry and mounted infantry had displayed the coolest courage in making continuous feints against different positions under very heavy fire, in order to divert the enemy's attention while the main body of the cavalry were making the wide détour to the west. In extended order the men galloped up to the kopjes, then wheeled round and hurried back, while big guns and "pom-poms" freely played upon them. After ten hours' continuous marching and fighting the wearied men bivouacked on the ground which they had won.

The effect of the action just described was the capitulation of Johannesburg. While the forces under French and Ian Hamilton were engaged to the west of the town, Lord Roberts had sent his men forward to threaten the place to east and north, and the commandant, on May 30th, went out to see him at Germiston, 10 miles east. The heights to the north of the town were by this time held by the Gordons, mounted infantry, and the Seventh Division, and the position was hopeless for the enemy. On May 31st, the British flag was flying over the Government buildings. Nine locomotive engines, a coal-laden train, and much rolling-stock had been taken, and the railway southwards to the Vaal was found uninjured. The enemy had not been able to carry out their threatened destruction of the valuable "plant" at the gold-mines on the Rand. The capture

of Johannesburg came at the end of a march of 130 miles from Kroonstad, performed in one week by the British infantry, at the average rate of 18 miles a day. Every pound of supplies, for man, beast, and weapons, had to be brought along with the forces, an achievement in which Colonel Ward, as Director of Supplies, gave fresh proof of the ability which had won high praise from Sir George White at Ladysmith. Across the veldt, which has no smooth, hard roads, the wagons had come by rough tracks, cracked by summer heat, worn by autumn rains, crossing "spruits" by difficult drifts with steep descents and ascents. An unmolested advance, in which the natural difficulties alone were often very hard to overcome, had been obtained by the energetic, vigilant action of the mounted force which has been seen to be indispensable, in such a country, against foes like the Boers.

At Johannesburg, Mr. Krüger's capital was only 40 miles distant. On May 31st Lord Roberts had entered the gold-town, the British flag being hoisted with the usual ceremony, concluding with the march of the Seventh and Eleventh Divisions, the Naval Brigade, the heavy artillery, and two brigade-divisions of Royal Field Artillery. The 14th (Wavell's) Brigade, after this imposing display of conquering force, was left in the town to preserve order, while the main body of the troops encamped northwards on the Pretoria Road. An incident marking the occupation of Johannesburg is worth recording. Between the town and Germiston lies Elandsfontein, a little tin-roofed mining suburb, near which are great heaps of "tailings" thrown up from the gold-workings. These accumulations formed a fine military position commanding the railway-station, which became the centre of a struggle when a detachment of 40 Victorian Mounted Rifles "rushed" the building. Lieutenant Walker, in command, had previously shifted the "points" on the line, thus preventing the progress of trains which were to convey the retreating Boers from the town. A commando of 600 men, thus stayed in their departure, opened a sharp fire from a train which was ready to start. They then left the carriages and scaled the heaps of mine-refuse. An exciting half-hour began. There was rapid rifle-fire in all directions, and the fight spread into Johannesburg, where flying bullets threw up little puffs of dust in the streets, while women and

children ran to and fro, dumb with excitement, or screaming as they dodged the bullets. Some of the Boers who had left the train escaped to the north-west; many descended the shafts of a mine, and were afterwards captured by the Guards. Large crowds from Johannesburg watched the fighting, astounded to see Elandsfontein in possession of the foes whom they had expected to see detained outside the centre of the gold-fields by weeks of conflict.

The culminating success of the campaign was coming. On May 26th there was already a state of panic in the capital of the South African Republic, and a special train was standing in the station with steam up day and night, ready to convey the President and members of the Government away to the east. After three days' rest in Johannesburg, the order for advance was issued, and on the night of Whitsunday, June 3rd, the British army was bivouacking 16 miles to the north. Ian Hamilton's force was on the left; Tucker, with the Seventh Division, occupied the centre; Pole-Carew's men (Eleventh Division) formed the right. On the next morning, the mounted infantry, in advance, ascended the last ridges of the Witwatersberg from the south, and came into touch with the enemy. The Boer forces, under Louis Botha, were disposed for twelve miles along the lofty chain of hills overlooking the capital, and on both banks of Six-Mile Spruit, named from its distance south of Pretoria. The much-vaunted forts, which were to cause loss that, in Mr. Krüger's famous words, "would stagger humanity", stood out in menacing guise against the clear sky, but they were evidently harmless, the big guns having been removed in order to avoid the certainty of capture. Colonel Henry's and Ross's Mounted Infantry scouts were, as the sun rose on June 4th, hotly engaged with the enemy's pickets along the spruit. The R.H.A. guns, supported by field-batteries raining shrapnel, and the heavy naval and siege-pieces, were soon at work. The West Somerset, Dorset, Bedford, and Sussex companies of Yeomanry aided the mounted infantry in quickly dislodging the Boers from the south side of the spruit, and pursued them for nearly a mile, until they were checked by a heavy fire from well-hidden guns. The British heavy metal was hurried to the front as fast as the men and mules could travel over the great rolling hills, the artillery being supported by Stephenson's (the 18th) Brigade of

Pole-Carew's Division. A few rounds drove the enemy from their positions. An attempt to turn the British left flank was foiled by the mounted infantry and the Yeomanry, supported by Maxwell's Brigade of Tucker's (the 7th) Division, while Ian Hamilton, 3 miles to Lord Roberts' left, completed Boer discomfiture in that quarter by sending round the 60th Mounted Infantry, the West Australian Mounted Infantry, and the New South Wales Lancers, under Captain De Lisle, to envelop the enemy's right. The men led their horses up a steep and rocky ascent, and down the other side, and then, remounting, galloped straight across the valley towards Pretoria. The Gordon Highlanders and the Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry were meanwhile engaging the Boers from the north, and, before darkness fell, a general advance of Guards and line-battalions, in irresistible force, ended the battle and drove the enemy into and beyond the town. General French, with the 3rd and 4th Cavalry Brigades and Hutton's Mounted Infantry, was to the north of Pretoria, where his presence caused the release of 3039 men and 148 officers at Watervaal, 15 miles to the north, the second station on the line to Pietersburg. At that time, the total number of British prisoners in Boer hands was 178 officers and 4348 non-coms. and men. One officer and 66 men had died in captivity, and 3 officers and 14 men had been released. The enemy, in their retreat from Pretoria, carried off about 900 officers and men.

The army bivouacked on the ground which they had won, a flag of truce being sent into the town demanding its surrender. About midnight, Lord Roberts was awoke to receive Botha's military secretary and a general officer of the Boer army, bringing a letter with proposals for an armistice in order to settle terms of capitulation. The British Commander-in-chief replied that he would gladly meet the Commandant-general in the morning, but that no terms need be discussed, as surrender must be unconditional. The reply from Botha stated his decision not to defend the town, and left women, children, and property to the British leader's care. At 1 a.m. on June 5th, three chief officials from Pretoria met Lord Roberts on the line of march with a flag of truce, and stated their wish to surrender the place. The entry of the British forces was arranged for 2 p.m. The market-square was lined by the 3rd Battalion Grenadier Guards during the

splendid spectacle presented as, for two hours, the troops of three British divisions marched past Lord Roberts, with the flag worked by Lady Roberts hoisted over the Government Buildings. The population of the town were greatly impressed, the chief admiration of all spectators being accorded to the Guards, Mounted Infantry, Artillery, Naval Brigade, Highlanders, and City Imperial Volunteers. The prize of war included two machine-guns, many locomotives, and a large quantity of other rolling-stock. The fleeing President, leaving Mrs. Krüger behind, carried off over two millions sterling value in gold, including £120,000 cash "commandeered" at the National Bank. The great "statesman" who has been compared by some British pro-Boers with Oliver Cromwell, at the same time paid up the salaries of the officials in worthless paper-money. It was a fitting close to Mr. Krüger's career of power in the Transvaal. He had begun the contest with the British Empire by the most insolent of ultimatums; he ended it, so far as he was concerned, by the most cruel and shameless robbery of his own tools. The indignant burghers at Pretoria, who had connived at the swindling of foreigners, and at the plundering of the mine-companies by the ex-President and his State Secretary, Mr. Reitz, in the despatch of bar-gold to Germany, stood aghast at their robbery of the National Bank and the defrauding of unpaid subordinates, and declared that Krüger ought to be tried for stealing. We conclude our account of the capture of Pretoria by contrasting the actual cost of that achievement, to the British forces engaged, with the vaguely enormous "butcher's bill" predicted by the ruler who had just run off with the contents of the till. The return of casualties, which is of real historical interest as an illustration of scientific strategy and its cost to forces skilfully handled, showed 2 men killed, and 1 officer and 48 men wounded. We must now turn our attention to the little town where Baden-Powell and his men, and a body of brave and patient civilians—whites and natives—were maintaining, watched with absorbing, admiring, and anxious interest in all parts of the Empire, one of the most gallant defences known in the whole history of war.

Boer methods of warfare are displayed in the following item of news communicated by Lord Roberts:—"I have heard from Baden-Powell, through Plumer, that on the 25th January enemy

shelled the convent, used as a convalescent hospital, with 94-pounder guns. Lady Sarah Wilson was slightly wounded. Next day enemy deliberately shelled women's laager with field-guns." On January 29th, Baden-Powell, from advanced works which he had pushed out towards the Boer laager, shelled the enemy with an old naval smooth-bore and forced them to move their position 2 miles back. On February 2nd, when General Snyman, practically admitting, in a transparent falsehood, that he had ordered the deliberate shelling of the women's and children's camps in Mafeking, offered no excuse or apology, the British commander informed him that temporary premises for the Boer prisoners had been established in the women's laager and in the hospital. Early in February, the besiegers were "sniping" and shelling in a dilatory way, and one of B.-P.'s advanced posts was pushed out 250 yards nearer to their trenches, while two daring men of the Cape Police had blown up with dynamite the brick-stacks used as a fort by the enemy. Citizens and natives were being killed and wounded by shell-fire, without any serious loss. On the south-east, about February 15th, the trenches were pushed out to within 150 yards of the foe, who were then much harassed by the defenders' rifle-fire. The Boers then resorted to the use of incendiary shells, doing no harm, and affording a pretty sight in the market-square as they burst into blue, red, and yellow flames. Not daring to advance themselves to an assault, the Boers were in the habit of pushing forward parties of wretched natives, in charge of foreigners—Scandinavians, Germans, and Irish-Americans—while the burghers kept well under cover. None of these paltry attacks produced any effect, the garrison carefully reserving their fire until a good mark was presented, and then discharging bullets which kept the foe at bay. Dysentery and like diseases, caused by want of vegetables and good food, were a far more terrible foe than the Boers, and it was sad to see the children's graveyard, close to the women's laager, becoming week by week fuller of the little victims of disease or shells.

In the last week of February, the mechanics of the railway-works were turning out 50 shells a day from ingeniously-contrived plant, using as material fragments of the enemy's shells and scraps of cast-iron, the furnace being made out of a disused water-tank lined with fire-bricks. Conolly, the foreman, was manager of the

shell-department in the ordnance-factory at Pretoria, where he had supervised the making of the 100-pound shells flung into Mafeking by the great Creusot gun. A 5½-inch howitzer had been cast, and home-made missiles were thrown at the foe with home-made powder from a home-made gun, the fuse being the invention of Lieutenant Daniel. On February 25th, new heart was put into the defenders by a message from their Queen, and three days later they heard with joy of the relief of Kimberley, the capture of Colesberg, and the invasion of the Orange Free State. Early in March there was smart fighting at the entrenchments on the position of the brickfields near the Molopo River, with a free use of hand-grenades on both sides, the enemy being at last driven off by a bayonet charge. The men employed for defence at the brickfields were townspeople and Cape "boys", the Mafeking Cape Police being a colonial force commanded by Captain Marsh, a veteran in guerilla-warfare who had fought in seven tough native campaigns, and was now assisted in his arduous work by Captain Ashley of the British South Africa Police. Lieutenant Feltham, of the Protectorate Regiment, honourably known as "Dynamite Joe", and Inspector Brown, of the Cape Police, did excellent work in the making of hand-grenades. On March 27th, the enemy opened, from seven guns, including a 100-pounder, the most vigorous bombardment hitherto sustained, sending in 250 shells during the day, of which the heavy gun fired seventy. On April 1st Baden-Powell opened fire with his 5-inch howitzer, to which the Boers replied with sixty rounds of 94-pound shell. The enemy had been finally driven from their position in the brickfields, and two enterprising officers of the garrison were so fortunate as to discover and render harmless a mine left behind by the enemy, connected by a copper wire with their lines and loaded with 250 lbs. of war-gelatine and dynamite.

On April 4th, Lieutenant Smitheman, the famous Matabeleland scout, got through the Boer lines with an Imperial Government despatch for Colonel Baden-Powell. He was the second white man who had succeeded in entering the town since the beginning of the investment, and obtained information as to the enemy's positions in the neighbourhood likely to be of the greatest value to a relieving force. A census completed at this time showed the population as 7250, daily fed with 2 pints of soup and 2 quarts

of "skilly". Sowans porridge, made by a Scot named Sims from oat-bran husks, proved of great service. The people of Mafeking continued to take their troubles in a light-hearted manner, with rows of citizens, sadly reduced in weight by six months in the trenches, forming a queue outside the porridge-kitchen, bearing in their hands pannikins, jugs, and bowls for the dole of the new Scottish luxury. This food proved to be wholesome and strengthening, and practically solved the question of feeding the natives, some of whom, on superstitious grounds, would not take the horse-flesh soup. The garrison and people were, however, by this time beginning to be somewhat weary, and were expecting to receive news of a serious attempt for their relief. On April 11th, the bombardment was severely renewed from six field-guns surrounding the town, the big Creusot, and two 16-pounder Vickers-Maxims, firing steel-tipped, armour-piercing, high-velocity projectiles. Thirty shells fell in the women's laager and four in the hospital. Under cover of the bombardment, an attack was made on one of the Mafeking forts, but was repulsed with loss, the garrison lying low until the enemy were well within range. A message from the Queen was received with loud cheers, and the people were greatly encouraged by one from Lord Roberts, promising speedy relief. The women and children were suffering greatly from lack of proper food, and the hospitals were filling with cases of malarial fever. The distress in the native quarter was, however, greatly alleviated by the escape of a large number of men, women, and children through the enemy's lines. In the last week of April, the gallant commandant, "after 200 days' siege", sent out a despatch to Lord Roberts with the highest praise of "the good spirit of loyalty pervading all classes", and of their "patience in making the best of things under the long strain of anxiety, hardship, and privation". "The men," he said, "half of whom are unaccustomed to the use of arms, have adapted themselves to their duties with the greatest zeal, readiness, and pluck, and the devotion of the women is remarkable." The food-question was illustrated, in amusing fashion, by a telegram from Lady Sarah Wilson to a relative. It was dated Mafeking, May 3rd:— "Breakfast consisted of horse-sausages; lunch, minced mule and curried locusts. Well." On May 7th, "B.P." reported to Lord Roberts "All going well. Fever decreasing. Garrison cheerful,

and food will last until about June 10th." The hour of relief for the long-tried town was not distant, and we must now record the efforts made from north and south.

We have already seen Colonel Plumer and his force, in December, 1899, invading the Transvaal from Rhodesia by crossing the Limpopo. That able and active leader, early in 1900, was making strenuous efforts to reach Mafeking from the north. In the first week of February, he was at Gaberones, on the railway, about 90 miles north of the besieged town, engaged in an artillery-duel with a body of Boers, 500 strong, under Commandant Eloff, who blocked the way. On February 11th, a gallant attack was made by Major Bird, with 200 men (150 Rhodesia Regiment, 25 British South Africa Police, 25 Southern Rhodesia Volunteers) on a kopje held by the enemy near Crocodile Pools, but the attempt failed owing to the strength of the fort, under the walls of which, after forcing their way up the sides of the hill, covered with dense bush and a network of artificial entanglements, the assailants came under a heavy shell- and rifle-fire at close range, and were forced to retire with the loss of an officer and four men killed, and one officer and several men wounded or missing. The officer who fell was Captain French, shot five times before and after scaling the wall of the fort. On February 25th the enemy evacuated the forts on both sides of the railway at Crocodile Pools, and the works were occupied by Plumer's men. On March 6th, Colonel Plumer, without opposition, entered Lobatsi, about 50 miles north of Mafeking, and on the 14th he was checked, after some sharp fighting, by a considerable force of Boers. On the 16th, Plumer, having quitted Lobatsi on the advance of a large body of men from Mafeking under Commandant Snyman, retired into the neighbouring bush, and the enemy began to destroy the railway to the south, and returned to Mafeking after leaving a small commando near Lobatsi. On March 25th, the British commander, with a body of mounted infantry, unencumbered by wagons, left his camp in order to threaten the enemy's line of communication. Making two rapid night-marches straight across country, he entered the Transvaal, and on the 27th his force had reached a point within 12 miles of Zeerust, 35 miles north-east of Mafeking, in the centre of the fertile Marico district, the residence of many of

the besiegers of Mafeking. On March 31st, Colonel Plumer, with 270 mounted men, a few unmounted infantry, and a Maxim, reached Ramathlabama, on the railway 16 miles north of the besieged town, whence the mounted men went south to within 6 miles of the place, which was there in full view. This advanced guard met a large body of Boers, and both flanks were soon also engaged with the enemy, outnumbering the British force by two to one. After a sharp engagement for an hour, Plumer, unable to make way, but foiling all the Boer efforts to outflank and surround his force, retired slowly to Ramathlabama, fighting steadily for the whole ten miles. The casualties in this encounter were 3 officers and 7 men killed, 3 officers and 24 men wounded, and 11 missing. A number of horses were also killed or disabled. The force at Colonel Plumer's disposal had thus been unable, of itself, to make its way to Mafeking. The part which this body of the Rhodesian Frontier Force actually played in the relief will be shortly seen. Colonel Plumer and his men had, however, in spite of the smallness of their numbers, the exceptional difficulty of the country, and the trying nature of the climate in which they were operating, rendered great service in holding and driving back the enemy who sought to invade Rhodesia by way of Tuli; in preserving the Bulawayo railway for 200 miles south of the Rhodesian border; and in giving direct support and protection to the friendly natives of Khama's and Linchwe's dominions, to Bathoen's country, and to the Bechuanaland Protectorate in general when it was threatened by the enemy. We must now turn our attention to the forces under Sir Frederick Carrington, an officer already seen in connection with the Matabeleland rebellion of 1896.

Major-general Sir F. Carrington, K.C.M.G., K.C.B., entered the 24th Regiment in 1864; commanded Light Horse in the Transkei (Kaffir) War of 1877–78, and the Colonial forces against Sekukuni, in the Transvaal, in 1878–79; he was leader of the native levies in the Zulu rebellion, and of the Colonial forces in the Basuto war of 1881; and was commandant of the Bechuanaland Police in 1893, and Military Adviser to the High Commissioner during the Matabele war in the same year. Possessing this unsurpassed knowledge and experience of South

African topography and warfare, Carrington was well chosen to take command of a force destined, in case of need, to defend Rhodesia against a Boer invasion. The "Rhodesia Field Force" was composed of about 5000 men, British and Colonials from all parts of the empire, most of whom, during March and April, 1900, landed at Beira, on Portuguese territory, at the mouth of the Pungwe River, not far north of Sofala. The town has sprung into existence since 1887, as the ocean-terminus of a road from the interior, and lies about 400 miles almost due east of Bulawayo, with an excellent, capacious harbour, easy of access, and having good depth of water. The body of men under Carrington's command was composed to a large extent of Australian "Bushmen", whose hard life and experience in wild country fitted them admirably for the work to be done in South Africa. The Australians, 1100 men with their mounts, and about 1200 mules and hundreds of transport-carts, under Lieutenant-colonel Airey, D.S.O., reached Beira before the middle of April, and proceeded by railway to the camp prepared for them at Marandellas, 24 miles from Salisbury, in Rhodesia, a town about 375 miles from Beira. The course of events in the war was, happily, such as to relieve the Rhodesia Force from the need of defending the country against Boer invasion. The share which Sir Frederick Carrington had in the relief of Mafeking, whither his main force was certain to be unable to arrive in time, was not without importance. That officer, when the war began, was commanding the Belfast military district at home. When he went out for his new charge, he landed at Cape Town, and, as soon as he heard of the position of affairs at Mafeking, and of Plumer's efforts to relieve the town from the north, he saw that it was urgently needful to reinforce his artillery, and resolved to despatch to his aid, from Beira, a Canadian battery, with a mounted infantry escort of 300 men. The difficulty was, how to effect a sufficiently rapid transport. In this matter indispensable aid was afforded by Mr. Zeederberg, the Rhodesian coach-owner, a fine specimen of the loyal Colonial Dutchman. That enterprising man of business undertook to convey the guns and escort by mail-coaches. General Carrington was accompanied to Beira by Mr. Zeederberg, travelling by sea, and the latter telegraphed to his agents in Rhodesia suspending the usual mail-service from Salis-

bury to Bulawayo, and ordering the relays of mules to be transferred to the Marandellas-Bulawayo road. The troops were then "rushed" through by special trains from Beira to Marandellas, where mules were hitched to the guns, and, the men riding in coaches, the force arrived in Bulawayo twenty days sooner than they would have done by the ordinary "trek", and reached Colonel Plumer in time to join the advance for the relief of Mafeking. A vast stretch of country had to be covered by the men. The escort was composed of "D" Squadron of the Queenslanders, commanded by Major Kellie, with Captain Fowles, and Lieutenants Harris and Annat. The "Dominion" was represented by "C" Battery of the Royal Canadian Field Artillery, commanded by Major Hudson, with whom were Captain Panet and Lieutenants King and Leslie. The force left Marandellas on May 5th, completing the 300 miles to Bulawayo by the 8th. After a stay of twenty-four hours, the men had a three days' railway-journey to Ramutsa. Thence, for three days, they marched across country, through bush and sand, a distance of 70 miles, by way of Colonel Plumer's Camp, to the Molopo River. There, on May 15th, 20 miles west of Mafeking, they met the Southern relief column whose movements are now to be described.

Lord Roberts had undertaken that Mafeking should be delivered by May 18th, and there were few, if any, who doubted that this promise could be fulfilled. The man chosen for the command of the relief-force was one who had already gained high distinction. Colonel Bryan Thomas Mahon, D.S.O., one of Kitchener's alert and adroit subordinates in the Soudan, Major in the 8th Hussars, had commanded the cavalry who, under Sir Reginald Wingate as Acting-Sirdar, tracked the Khalifa and brought him to bay near Gedid in November, 1899. He afterwards, in charge of an Egyptian force, occupied El Obeid. His previous service included that with the Dongola Expedition in 1896, when he was staff-officer to Kitchener, and was present at the battles of Firket and Hafir. The flying-column now placed under him, numbering about 2000 men, was a picked force composed of Imperial Light Horse from Ladysmith, the Kimberley Mounted Corps, mounted infantry from the Fusilier Brigade, and Royal Horse Artillery, with four 12-pounder guns, two Vickers-

Maxims, three Maxims, and light mule-transport. On Brigadier-General Mahon's staff were Colonel Frank Rhodes, Major Baden-Powell (a brother of the besieged hero), Major Sir John Willoughby, Major the Hon. Maurice Gifford, and Captain the Duke of Teck. The leader's object was, if possible, to slip through to Mafeking without any collision with the enemy, while Sir Archibald Hunter diverted attention by engaging and bombarding the Boers at Fourteen Streams. Treachery was, as usual in this war, at work against the British leader, and it is certain that the movements of the force were, in some instances, made known to the commandant of the besiegers. Leaving Kimberley on May 2nd, the little army, after remaining a day at Barkly, on the Vaal, pushed rapidly on, hearing on the way the sound of Hunter's guns. Keeping near to the course of the Harte River, the force passed by Taungs and hurried on, obtaining at a rebel's farm abundance of ducks, geese, fowls, and pigs, affording welcome food. On May 8th the men rested at Vryburg, 120 miles on their way, finding the town wrecked by the enemy. Some of the horses gave out from fatigue, but "remounts" were commandeered at farms on the route, and the force arrived north of Kraaipan, 175 miles from Kimberley, without molestation. News arrived that the rear was secured by General Hunter's occupation of Vryburg with 2000 mounted men, while his infantry were left at Taungs, up to which he had repaired the railway.

On the afternoon of Sunday, May 13th, Mahon and his men met the enemy at Koodoosrand, near Maritsani, 200 miles north of their starting-place, and a sharp engagement ensued. The road there ran between two kopjes, on which the Boers were strongly posted. The British leader swerved to the left, but the foe, observing the movement of avoidance, followed the column and attacked it with rifle-fire amidst dense bush, assailing the Imperial Light Horse, the advance-guard, at 300 yards' range. The British artillery was used with great effect, and after an hour's action the Boers were driven off. The Imperial Light Horse had 5 men killed and 22 wounded, and Major Baden-Powell had a narrow escape, his watch being smashed by a bullet. At 9 a.m. on May 15th, Colonel Mahon's force effected a junction at a little Kaffir town, Jan Masibi's Stad, with Plumer's Canadians, Australians, and Rhodesians, 900 strong, on the banks of the Molopo.

There for the moment we must leave the united body of deliverers, in order to show how the garrison of the besieged town had been faring, and what they had accomplished for their own salvation before the final and decisive blow was struck.

On May 12th, Commandant Eloff, spurred to action by the knowledge that the southern relief-column was getting perilously near, determined to take Mafeking by assault. The attack was carefully planned, and, up to a certain point, was successful. At four in the morning, Eloff and about 700 Boers, wading along the Molopo river, on the north-west front, while Snyman made a feigned attack on the east, aimed at getting past the forts and "rushing" the native town. Many of the huts were set on fire, about 300 of the enemy having entered the place before the British pickets rallied and closed them in from the rear. The fire of the forts, and the men led by Major Godley, checked the advance of the enemy's main body, and the Baralong natives, at first taken by surprise, bravely rallied and assisted in repelling the Boer supports. The Boer commandant, with his advance-guard, led the way to one of the old forts of the British South Africa Police, which, with the adjoining barracks of the Protectorate Regiment, was under the command of Colonel Hore. Eloff had with him about 180 men, and Colonel Hore and three captains, with about 15 men, chiefly non-coms. of the staff, were taken prisoners. Baden-Powell, in this crisis, acted with his usual admirable coolness and energy, issuing order after order which, within a few minutes, arranged a new line of defence. Major Panzera, with the reserve-artillery, galloped off to the railway-bridge and unlimbered for action. Some of the town-guard lined the railway-embankment, and Captain Hore's railway-division wheeled back to defend the British town. A body of the Cape Police, and a squadron of the Protectorate Regiment, opened a rapid and terribly accurate fire upon the Boers from the right flank, and by sunrise the advance of the enemy on the heart of Mafeking was effectually stayed. Meanwhile, severe fighting went on in the native town, a small party of the enemy being surrounded in a stone cattle-kraal by Captains Marsh and Fitzclarence, while Lord Charles Bentinck hemmed in others on a kopje in the centre of the place. Eloff and his men, in the old fort, were cut off from all communication with their comrades. The position was

extraordinary. All the British outlying works were intact, and few men among the defenders had fallen, yet three bodies of Boers were inside the lines, surrounded, cut off, and declining to surrender. Towards noon, a lull in the firing occurred. The enemy in the old fort had lost six killed, and not a man dared show a hand or head in face of the deadly British fire. Soon after midday the Boers in the cattle-kraal surrendered, and during the afternoon those on the kopje were shelled from their cover and driven in rout among the native huts. Two hours after dark, Commandant Eloff, understanding the state of affairs, surrendered to his own prisoner, Colonel Hore, having been deserted by many of his force, and was taken up to Baden-Powell's head-quarters, where he was promptly asked to "come in and have some dinner". About 120 prisoners were in the hands of the defenders of Mafeking, and the remnant of the assailants were cleared out by Captains Lord Charles Bentinck, Marsh, and Fitzclarence. Thus ended the only serious Boer attempt to storm the town. The besiegers were utterly dispirited by the failure, and in poor condition to oppose the relieving-force.

On the morning of May 16th, the combined forces of Colonel Mahon and Colonel Plumer left Jan Masibi's Stad, and marched eastwards along the Molopo valley. At about 9 miles from Mafeking they encountered the enemy in force, and sharp fighting occurred on both banks of the river from 3 p.m. until dusk, the Canadians and Queenslanders being under a heavy fire from two big guns and a "pom-pom". The Boers, who were about 1200 strong, were slowly forced back, and the contest ended for the time as darkness fell. Soon after midnight on May 17th, the relieving-force was marching due east over the veldt from the bivouac, with every precaution against surprise, the convoy and guns being flanked far and wide on each side by mounted men. The road was struck within three miles of the town, and at nine a.m. the relieving-force entered amidst tremendous cheers. The garrison at once moved out with 12-pounders and "pom-poms" and attacked the chief Boer laager, whence the enemy fled after a poor resistance for half an hour, leaving behind tents, wagons, and baggage in various forms. All the enemy's positions were occupied, the men and women of Mafeking town swarming upon the house-tops to watch the Boer rout. The town-guard then

formed up in the market-square for a march-past of the relief-force, special enthusiasm being aroused by the fact that colonials—including Canadians and Australians—had been mainly engaged in the deliverance of the town.

It is needless to dwell here on the rapture of delight with which the tidings of the relief of Mafeking was received in every part of the empire. As a sad but wholesome sedative to the excitement and exultation which prevailed, there were people who recalled a telegram from the town dated January 23rd, written by the mother of four little girls: "When shall we be relieved? Surely England cannot have deserted us. Hettie and Nellie lie in the cemetery; baby lies in her cot a little skeleton, and as I write my tears fall on the pallid face of Winnie. She is dying." Such was a part, a very small part, of the terrible price paid by innocent and helpless victims for the war due to the evil ambition of Krüger and his associates, whom some Britons were not ashamed to admire and applaud. The total casualties in Mafeking during the siege of 218 days, the longest in the nineteenth century except those of Sebastopol (327 days) and Khartum (341 days), amounted to 914. Among the combatants, of the whites, 6 officers and 61 non-commissioned officers and men were killed, 15 officers and 103 non-coms. and men wounded, 1 officer and 26 men "missing", while 16 non-coms. and men died of disease, and 5 were accidentally wounded. Among the coloured combatants, 25 were killed and 58 wounded. The coloured non-combatants suffered very severely from the bombardment. Of whites, 4 were killed, 5 wounded, and 32 died of disease; of the resident natives, 64 were killed and 117 wounded; of Baralongs, 264 were killed and 122 wounded. Of the white combatants, 22 officers were killed, wounded, or missing out of a total of 44, and 190 men out of a total of 975. The services rendered to the British cause in South Africa by the defence of Mafeking were very great. In the first place, a force of 8000 Boers, with 10 guns, surrounding the town on the first outbreak of war, was prevented from combining with the Tuli column for an invasion of Rhodesia, or joining the force sent against Kimberley, and Cronje's commando was held at Mafeking for a month. For over six months, a body of 2000 to 3000 enemies, with 8 guns, including a 94-pounder, was kept employed, with an expenditure on their part of far over 100

tons of ammunition, and a loss of more than 1000 men killed and wounded. Large stores of food, forage, and general supplies were kept out of Boer hands. Valuable railway-plant, locomotives, rolling-stock, work-shops, and coal were preserved. Refuge was afforded to a large number of British from the Transvaal. The gallant and prolonged defence caused most of the local tribes, and all natives in Southern Rhodesia, to remain loyal, which could not have been the case if Mafeking had fallen, and they had been left at the mercy of bitter and unscrupulous foes. Lastly, and best of all, the flag had been kept flying with a great loss of credit to Cronje's army, who had advanced against Mafeking in full expectation of a speedy capture, and had with them a proclamation, ready printed, of the annexation of the whole district to the South African Republic. That design was signally frustrated by one of the most brilliant feats in military history. The town had no natural advantages; the preparation for a siege had not been elaborate; the forces brought against it seemed overwhelming. The victory was won by sheer force of brains and courage, wielded by a commander of infinite resource, and by a truly heroic garrison. Night and day the trenches were held for over seven months, made longer by alternations of anxiety and hope. The relief was effected at last by two British forces from the outside, directed with much ability by officers acting under the great commander who, having promised safety by a certain time, was a day in advance of his word. The name of Mafeking, the little town on the Molopo—both all but unknown to the empire at large when the war began—had become immortal. Sure we are that when Baden-Powell, the defender, and the place which he guarded from the Boer, are forgotten, the end of British sway in the world will be drawing near.

On the morning after the relief the "Cape Boys" captured a 5-pounder Krupp gun and two flags. The garrison-men and the railway-division rapidly repaired the railway-line from the north, and on the Queen's birthday, after the firing of minute-guns, a *feu-de-joie*, the sounding of the Royal salute, and a march-past, the first train from the north entered the town, with Baden-Powell (now "Major-general") and his staff on the leading truck, the whole train decorated with branches of trees and evergreens, flying the Union Jack in front, the St. George's ensign in the

centre, and the Chartered Company's flag in the rear. A large crowd welcomed the arrival at the station-platform, amid loud cheers and the crack of fog-signals. The day's rejoicing ended with a dinner given by "B. P.". The Imperial Light Horse invaded the Transvaal on May 27th, while the Kimberley Mounted Infantry moved southwards to protect the railway. Small parties of Boers laid down their arms from day to day, and the pacification of the surrounding district rapidly proceeded. On May 27th Zeerust was occupied without fighting, and Baden-Powell became administrator of that district and the adjacent Malwani gold-fields, moving his base to Ottoshoop, while Sir Archibald Hunter's division had its head-quarters at Mafeking. General Barton occupied Lichtenburg, 40 miles south-east of Mafeking; on June 12th, Colonel Mahon's cavalry entered Potchefstroom, capturing much rolling-stock; two days later, Baden-Powell seized Rustenburg, and was joined by a column from Pretoria; on June 18th, the "man of Mafeking" was with Lord Roberts in the capital of the Republic.

The skilful and stubborn enemy were still to give much trouble to British leaders and troops. On June 8th, General Kelly-Kenny, at Bloemfontein, reported to the "General of Communications" (Sir F. Forestier-Walker) at Cape Town that the telegraph-line had been cut at Roodeval, north of Kroonstad, by a body of Boers estimated at 2000 men, with six field-guns. Many miles of the railway were, in fact, destroyed, and the British commander-in-chief was, for the time, completely cut off to the south. Lord Roberts had also work to do to the east of Pretoria. After the surrender of the city (June 5th), Louis Botha retired with his forces, numbering 8000 men, about fifteen miles eastwards, on the road to Middelburg. His presence there was at once an insult and an injury, in keeping up excitement in the country, preventing burghers from laying down their arms, and interfering with the collection of supplies, and the British leader resolved to attack him in a position which was very strong, practically unassailable in front, and so enabling the defender to place the main portion of his force on the flanks. On June 12th, General French, with Porter's and Dickson's Cavalry Brigades and Hutton's Mounted Infantry, went round by the left (on the enemy's right), while Ian Hamilton, with Broad-

wood's and Gordon's Cavalry, Ridley's Mounted Infantry, and Bruce-Hamilton's Infantry Brigade, marched on the right to attack the Boer left. Both columns were stoutly opposed, but at last, after two days' fighting, Ian Hamilton, aided by the Guards Brigade of Pole-Carew's Division, drove the enemy from a hill in his front. During the night the Boers retired eastwards, carrying off, as usual, their guns and transport. The clearing of the railway in the Orange Free State was effected by Lord Kitchener, who was sent southwards with a force from Pretoria, and by Lord Methuen, who was near Heilbron. The two officers met at Vredefort Road Station on the evening of June 10th, and on the following day marched to Rhenoster River, where Methuen's men gained a complete victory over De Wet, taking possession of his camp, and scattering his troops in all directions. The country to the west was quieting down, and on June 19th, Hutton's Mounted Infantry, between Pretoria and Rustenburg, captured two guns from a Boer force under Commandant du Plessis. Klerksdorp, in the south-west, had surrendered, on June 9th, to a force sent on by General Hunter. Farther north, before his arrival at Pretoria, Baden-Powell had worked systematically through the districts of Marico, Lichtenburg, and Rustenburg, re-establishing order, collecting arms and supplies, capturing 230 prisoners, and receiving the surrender of about 600 burghers. Lord Roberts at this time issued a proclamation warning the Boers that, wherever the railway or telegraph-wires were cut, the nearest farm would be burnt. That fate had already befallen De Wet's farm on the Rhenoster River.

The crafty Boer commander was soon again at work. Part of his commando of about 700 men, with three guns, attacked the railway between Kroonstad and Honingspruit on June 23rd, assailing an outpost of Canadian Mounted Rifles with the loss of ten men killed, wounded, and missing, and then shelling with shrapnel a camp occupied by two companies of the Shropshires and 50 Canadians. Meanwhile, at Honingspruit Station, a train going south from Pretoria with 400 infantry was attacked by about 300 Boers, with two 15-pounders. The British force was under Colonel Bullock, of the Devons, and he had just time to telegraph to Kroonstad before the wires were cut. The railway on each side of his position was destroyed, but he promptly rejected a

summons to surrender, and about 8.30 a.m. was attacked, on the north, with rifle-fire, and with shell from guns posted to the north and south-east. The British force was soon surrounded. After a heavy fire maintained for some hours, another summons to surrender was indignantly rejected, and an unflinching resistance was kept up until 3.30 p.m., when the Boers fled, on the arrival of the 17th Battery R.A. and 300 Yeomanry under Colonel Brookfield. The British had lost Major Hobbs, of the West Yorks, who had for eight months been a prisoner near Pretoria, and three men killed, and an officer and sixteen men wounded. On June 23rd, Generals Ian Hamilton and Broadwood, with a "pom-pom" and field-battery, Roberts' Horse, the Ceylon Mounted Infantry, and Marshall's Horse, occupied Heidelberg, on the railway south-east of Johannesburg, after driving away 2000 Boers by the usual flanking-movements. Early in July, the enemy were threatening the line of railway east of Pretoria, and on the 5th, Lord Roberts sent Hutton with his mounted infantry to reinforce Colonel Mahon, ordering him to drive the Boers beyond Bronkhorst Spruit Station, about 40 miles from head-quarters. On July 6th and 7th Mahon, with slight loss, befalling the Imperial Light Horse, 1st Battalion Mounted Infantry, 1st Battalion Canadian Mounted Rifles, and "*M*" Battery R.H.A., defeated and drove away about 3000 men, with six guns and two Vickers-Maxims. In the west, an audacious party summoned Major Hanbury-Tracy, in command at Rustenburg, to surrender, and on his refusal, opened fire with artillery, and attacked the heights commanding the town. Met with a skilful arrangement of Tracy's garrison, the enemy were finally driven off by aid of Colonel Holdsworth, 7th Hussars, who made a rapid march of 48 miles from near Zeerust with Australian bushmen under Colonel Airie. The Boers suffered heavy loss, including a few prisoners. We may here note that in an Army-order issued by Lord Roberts on June 7th, reviewing recent operations, he praised the "gallantry and endurance displayed by the troops", and recorded that, during the space of 35 days, the main body of his army marched 300 miles, including 15 days' halt, and engaged the enemy on 6 occasions; that the column under Lieutenant-general Ian Hamilton marched 400 miles in 45 days, including 10 days' halt, and was 28 times engaged with the enemy; that the flying column under the command of Colonel

Mahon, which relieved Mafeking, marched at the rate of nearly 15 miles a day for 14 consecutive days; and that the newly-raised battalion of the City of London Imperial Volunteers marched 500 miles in 51 days, only once having two consecutive days' halt, and took part in 26 engagements with the enemy. After referring to "the sudden variations in temperature between the warm sun in the day-time and the bitter cold at night" as "peculiarly trying to the troops", and to the fact that "owing to the necessity for rapid movement, the soldiers frequently had to bivouac, after long and trying marches, without firewood and with scanty rations", the Commander-in-chief declared "the cheerful spirit with which difficulties were overcome, and hardships disregarded" to be "deserving of the highest praise", and expressed his pride in thinking "that the soldiers under his command had worthily upheld the traditions of Her Majesty's army in fighting, in marching, and in the admirable discipline which had been maintained throughout a period of no ordinary trial and difficulty".

The victorious army had not yet seen the last of the irritating reverses which, from time to time, without the least influence on the ultimate issue of the campaign, encouraged the more adventurous and less prudent among the enemy to continue a hopeless struggle with overwhelming force. On July 11th, at Pyramid Kopjes, 10 miles north of Pretoria, a squadron of the 7th Dragoon Guards was sent, under the guidance of a Dutch farmer, to capture a Boer patrol said to be holding a farm. The British horsemen fell into an ambush, and found themselves face to face with a large force. The Dragoons retired slowly, fighting as they went, before a sudden and determined attack, holding the kopjes on the line of retreat, which was ably covered by two R.H.A. guns. The 14th Hussars, with "pom-poms", made a demonstration against the enemy's left, but the Boers brought heavy guns into action, and shelled the plain across which the whole of the cavalry had to retire. Cover was finally gained behind the hills of the Magaliesberg range, west of Pretoria. While this force was so narrowly escaping, Commandant Delarey, moving from the westward, attacked a post called Nitral's Nek, about eighteen miles from Pretoria, near where the road to Rustenburg crosses the Crocodile River. The position was held by five companies of

THE CITY IMPERIAL VOLUNTEERS IN ACTION

After the Colenso disaster, the Government issued an order calling for Volunteer companies to serve with the territorial battalions, and for the formation of a mounted infantry force to be called the Imperial Yeomanry. The call was so enthusiastically responded to that it soon became difficult to select the necessary number. Nine thousand men were asked for, and four times that number offered their services. London quickly subscribed £75,000 for the equipment of a regiment of 1400 fighting men styled "The City of London Imperial Volunteers". The result of the experiment amply justified the confidence of the Government, and proved that our Volunteer force is a valuable adjunct to the regular army. The illustration shows the C.I.V.'s in a smart engagement with the enemy.

F. DE HAENEN.

THE CITY IMPERIAL VOLUNTEERS IN ACTION.

the Lincolnshire Regiment, one squadron of the Scots Greys, and two guns of "*O*" Battery R.H.A. At dawn the enemy came in superior force, and, seizing the hills commanding the nek, brought a heavy converging fire to bear. After a sturdy defence for several hours, the party was overpowered, the two guns, most of the Scots Greys, whose horses were shot, and about 90 men of the Lincolns being captured, including the colonel and several officers, all wounded. It should be noted that the Lincolns never wavered for a moment, firing with the utmost steadiness until every cartridge was expended, and that a party composed of an officer and 15 men, making a brave attempt to charge the enemy, had 14 shot down. It is certain that, in this matter, exact knowledge of British movements was communicated to the enemy outside Pretoria by Boers in the town, using natives as messengers.

On July 16th, the enemy made a vigorous attack, near Pretoria, on the left of General Pole-Carew's position, and were met with a strong and successful resistance by Royal Irish Fusiliers, New Zealand Mounted Infantry under Captain Vaughan, and Canadian Mounted Infantry under Lieutenant-colonel Alderson. The Boers made repeated attempts to storm the British positions, coming up to a close range, and calling upon the Fusiliers to surrender, but they were driven back with the loss of about 70 men killed, wounded, and prisoners. The 1st Canadian Mounted Rifles, in this sharp encounter, had two officers killed—Lieutenant J. Birch and Lieutenant H. Borden—who fell while they were bravely leading their men in a counter-attack on the enemy's flank at a critical juncture of the Boer assault. Lieutenant Borden, only son of the Canadian Minister of Militia, had been twice brought under Lord Roberts' notice in despatches for gallant and intrepid conduct. The British loss also included 2 officers wounded, 5 men killed, 26 wounded, and 2 officers and 21 men missing. Generals Ian Hamilton, Henry, and Hutton, and Colonel Mahon, marching eastwards through a very difficult country, on July 20th and 21st, were all engaged with the enemy, Hamilton capturing some prisoners and wagons, and on July 23rd, on a further advance, it was found that Botha's force had retired, without resistance, into hilly country north of Bronkhurst Spruit. The activity and energy of the Boers was

displayed, on July 21st, in a determined attempt to destroy the British post at railhead, 13 miles south-east of Heidelberg. Attacking the British force at daybreak with three guns and a "pom-pom", the enemy completely surrounded them by noon, the garrison consisting of two companies Royal Dublin Fusiliers, 110 Royal Engineers, and 10 Yeomanry, under Major English of the Fusilier Battalion. That officer telegraphed to Heidelberg when the enemy appeared, and made arrangements for defence, on his skilfully fortified position, which enabled his brave men to beat off the foe with considerable loss before the arrival of General Hart with reinforcements. On July 21st, Lord Methuen attacked the Boers at Oliphant's Nek, near Rustenburg, and routed them with heavy loss, thereby completely relieving the British garrison at that town, and effecting his own junction with Baden-Powell. On July 25th, Lord Roberts announced his own arrival at Balmoral, on the railway, about fifty miles east of Pretoria, "without seeing any enemy", and reported a defeat of the Boers, on the previous day, at a point six miles south of his new head-quarters, by French's Cavalry and Hutton's Mounted Infantry. The foe, as usual, were disposed of by a flank attack on one side, and a "wide turning-movement" on the other, threatening their line of retreat.

The nature of the warfare which the British forces had to wage for many weeks after the great successes at Mafeking and Pretoria has now been illustrated. The character of the country, the enemy's knowledge of the ground, and the Boer mobility and cunning, aided by treachery on the part of farmers who made a pretended surrender to British leaders, and then took up arms as opportunity arose, enabled Lord Roberts' opponents in so extensive a field of operations to give abundant trouble, by frequent petty attacks, to inflict occasional losses of men and supplies, and to delay and annoy the conquerors by the cutting of telegraph-wires, the blowing-up of railway-bridges and culverts, and the destruction of "permanent way". All these attempts of mere guerilla-warfare to prevent subjugation of the territory were, of course, doomed to fail in presence of vastly superior forces. By the end of July, General French had entered Middelburg, a business-centre of considerable importance to farmers, in a rich coal-bearing district, near the picturesque Olifants River, while

the Boers, some thousands strong, under Louis Botha, trekked away towards the hills. At the same time, General Pole-Carew, with the Guards Brigade, heavy and field artillery, and mounted infantry, occupied Brugspruit, between Balmoral and Middelburg, and found the railway intact, while Ian Hamilton held the Diamond Hill range, near Eerstefabrieken Station, about 20 miles east of Pretoria. We must now quit the Transvaal for Natal, and view General Buller's operations subsequent to his relief of Ladysmith.

On retiring from Ladysmith, the Boers began to entrench themselves along the range of hills called the Biggarsberg, south-west of Dundee. The garrison of the relieved town needed a long rest, with good and abundant food, after their toils and privations, and to Sir Redvers Buller's splendid force a period of tranquillity and leisure was welcome after a fortnight's incessant marching and combat. The enemy were carrying matters with a high hand in the districts of Natal still at their disposal, commandeering the Dutch farmers, forcing the natives to work, and appropriating stock. There was plenty of work to be done within the British lines in repairing the railway from Colenso to Ladysmith, bringing up supplies, and freeing the town from the insanitary condition due to the siege. Reconnaissances made by Lord Dundonald's Brigade proved the country west of Ladysmith to be clear of the enemy from the Basutoland border to De Beer's Pass, north of the railway to Harrismith, the mountain-passes being held, with three guns at Van Reenen's. In the middle of March the advanced British camp was on Sunday's River, three miles north of Elandslaagte, where Lyttelton's Division and Burn-Murdoch's Cavalry-brigade were posted. The railway had been repaired as far as Modder Spruit, but between there and Sunday's River four good-sized bridges had been completely destroyed by the enemy during their retreat, and some time was needed for their restoration. At the end of the month the Boers sustained a severe loss, in the death, from disease, at Pretoria, of Commandant-general Piet Joubert, in his 67th year. He was deeply and generally mourned in his country, and his decease elicited a tribute of respect from his recent chivalrous antagonist, Sir George White. In his own country, Joubert was a man of liberal and progressive views,

of Huguenot origin, as his name showed; he was a sturdy upholder of independence for the Transvaal, and did honour to his cause in the war by the ability, humanity, and courtesy which he displayed.

The long inaction of the British commander, arising from causes already stated, was very irritating to the Boers, who longed, no doubt, to be attacked again in entrenched positions where they would have every advantage. Sir Redvers Buller was not likely, as it seemed, to gratify them, and in the first week of April the enemy moved forward from the Biggarsberg district and adopted measures of provocation. On April 10th, having placed heavy guns on a hill north of Sunday's River, the Boers dropped shell in the British camp, while the men were at drill, killing one private of the East Surreys and wounding another. The naval 4.7 inch guns responded, two men of the *Philomel* being killed. A three hours' artillery-duel took place before the Boer fire ceased, and some skirmishing went on between the enemy and the South African Light Horse. An attempt of the enemy to move southwards was barred by the British occupation of a hill on their left, and of the well-known Lombard's Kop and Bulwaan (Imbulwane) on the right. On April 21st, a commando crossed Sunday's River and occupied a hill near Elandslaagte, but General Buller treated the enemy's demonstrations with contempt, biding his time, and then taking the field with rapid and signal success. The Boers, vainly imagining that the British commander would assail them on the Biggarsberg, had fortified the ranges between Elandslaagte and Dundee in the most elaborate style, as on the Tugela heights, so as to command the railway and the two roads to the north—that to Dundee on the east of the line, that to Newcastle on the west. It was on May 10th that Sir Redvers Buller's fine army marched off eastwards to turn the Boer left flank. The Natal commander-in-chief had with himself Sir Francis Clery's (the Second) Division and the cavalry. On May 13th and 14th the enemy's positions were effectually turned at Helpmakaar and Pomeroy by Lord Dundonald, with the 3rd Cavalry Brigade, Colonel Bethune, with the Mounted Infantry, and General Hildyard, with the 2nd Brigade. Every movement of the British troops was carried out in perfect style, and, with little fighting, the Boers were practically turned out of all their fine defensive

GENERAL BULLER AND OTHER BRITISH GENERALS

On this plate are given the portraits of General Buller, who conducted the campaign in Natal; General White, who commanded the gallant garrison of Ladysmith; Lord Dundonald (who was first of the relieving force to reach Ladysmith) and General Ian Hamilton, prominent leaders of mounted troops; Lord Methuen, who defeated the Boers at Belmont, Gras Pan, and Modder River; General Kelly-Kenny, who brought Cronje to bay at Paardeberg; and General Hunter, who outwitted and entrapped three Boer Generals and about a thousand Free Staters at Fouriesburg.

General Hunter

Bassano

General White

Langfier

Lord Dundonald

R. Faulkner & Co.

1899.

SOUTH

1900

Sir Redvers Buller

C. Knight

1899.

AFRICA

1900

General Ian Hamilton

Lord Methuen

Window & Grove

General Kelly-Kenny

C. Knight

SIR REDVERS BULLER AND OTHER BRITISH GENERALS.

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positions. Lord Dundonald, on May 14th, covered nearly 40 miles of ground in a waterless country, riding most of the time through the smoke of the veldt fired by the retreating foe. General Hildyard occupied Wessel's Nek, on the railway to Dundee, and repaired the line, and early on May 15th General Buller occupied Dundee, evacuated by the enemy before a vastly superior force. On the same day, the British entered Glencoe, the Boers retiring northwards by train, and the Union Jack was at last set flying over the grave of General Symons. The Fifth Division (Hildyard's) received high praise from Sir Redvers for "a great deal of very hard work, marching, mountain-climbing, and road-making".

After a day's rest at Dundee and Glencoe, the northward march was resumed, and Newcastle was entered on the night of May 17th, the whole of the Second Division and the Third Cavalry Brigade being there concentrated. It was found that the enemy had done disgraceful damage in the town, burning the chapel, breaking much glass, and plundering many houses. The Boers could be daily seen entrenching their position at Laing's Nek, while the British force were busily repairing the railway, on which, at their general's suggestion, the men did a record day's work on May 24th, as the most fitting and loyal method of celebrating their sovereign's birthday. On May 19th General Clery and his men had reached Ingogo, and Dundonald was in front of Laing's Nek, having made a few prisoners and taken some wagons of the Boer convoy. It was found that the southern entrance of the tunnel at Laing's Nek had been blown up. The guns of the Royal Horse Artillery were firing at the fleeing enemy from the foot of the famous Majuba Hill. The Boer invasion of Natal was thus brought to a satisfactory end. Sir Redvers Buller issued an Army-order thanking and praising his troops for the hard work done during his advance to the frontier. By May 28th the railway-line to Newcastle was open; on the following day the Boers at Laing's Nek and Pogwani Mountain were being bombarded by General Clery with lyddite and shrapnel. It is needless to say that General Buller, arrived as he was on the borders of the Orange River State and the Transvaal, had no intention of meeting the enemy's views by striving to force impregnable passes. The turning-movements which, when they are executed by superior

forces, are ever irresistible, were again employed. Generals Hildyard and Lyttelton, marching eastwards, invaded the Transvaal in its south-eastern district, and on May 31st the town of Utrecht was formally surrendered by the Landdrost, the Boer forces having retired towards Laing's Nek. A few days later, General Buller sent General Coke, with the 10th Brigade (Fifth Division), north-west from Newcastle, and on June 6th heavy guns were planted on Van Wyk's hill, a height south of the Ingogo River, and on a south-west spur of Inkwelo Mountain, about 5 miles south-west of Laing's Nek. Under cover of these guns General Hildyard cleared the heights from Botha's Pass northwards to Inkwelo, the British troops showing great endurance and dash in the various assaults, climbing the steepest ground, and routing out the enemy. Positions commanding Laing's Nek and the railway were thus obtained, and on June 8th, when baggage and supplies had come up after arduous work through the mountains, a further advance was made, and the Orange State was invaded through Botha's Pass, the Boers being driven back over the Transvaal frontier. The South African Light Horse, during these operations, did excellent work in scouting, ferreting the enemy out of kloofs, and clearing the road for the main body. The 18th and 19th Hussars were sent by General Brocklehurst across the Drakensberg, and a clear country for further operations was secured.

On June 11th, the pass called Almond's Nek, south of Charlestown, in the Transvaal, was forced by the 2nd Dorsets at the point of the bayonet, and by the 3rd Cavalry Brigade, the whole attack being directed by General Hildyard, whose arrangements were admirable. On June 12th, General Buller was encamped four miles north of Volksrust, in the Transvaal, and Laing's Nek and Majuba were evacuated by the enemy. A splendid sight had been afforded by the Hussars and the "Sakabulas" (the name given by the natives to the South African Light Horse, being that of the bird whose feathers adorn their caps) in an attack near Charlestown, as troop after troop, under a heavy fire, dashed at intervals from cover towards the foe, riding at top speed in extended order. Several farmhouses with white flags flying were visited. At one place the British horsemen were begged to keep aloof on account of the illness of the Boer ladies there, but, with persistence based on some knowledge of Boer methods, the scouts

searched the house. No ladies were found, but from under their beds four robust Boers belonging to the Wakkerstroom commando were dragged out and made prisoners of war. It was found that the tunnel at Laing's Nek had not been seriously damaged, though both ends were blown in, and the engineers soon made repairs for the passage of trains. General Clery, with the Natal Volunteers, passed through Laing's Nek by the road. Natal had thus been cleared of the Boer invaders, by a series of movements most creditable to the generalship of Sir Redvers Buller and his colleagues, and to the endurance and discipline of their splendid soldiers. A message of the victorious leader to the Secretary of State for War, dated "Headquarters, Laing's Nek, June 15th", called attention to "the disgraceful way in which private property has been treated in the part of the colony occupied by the enemy. Wilful and needless damage is visible everywhere, and houses, when not completely wrecked, have been desecrated with filthy ingenuity. That this has been done with consent of the leaders is proved by the fact that, while in Charlestown (Natal) every house is wrecked, in Volksrust, two miles off, but in the Transvaal, the houses are practically intact." The British general ended his career in Natal by expressing his high appreciation of the services rendered during the eight months' campaign by Brigadier-general Dartnell and the Natal Volunteers. On June 18th, after arduous toil on the part of the 17th Company Royal Engineers and the Engineer Pontoon Troop, the first train passed through Laing's Nek Tunnel. As the advance into the Transvaal continued, hundreds of Boers came in and surrendered their arms. On June 21st, General Buller had reached Paarde Kop, on the railway, with his main force. On the following day, Lord Dundonald and the Third Cavalry Brigade occupied Standerton without opposition, and their meeting with Ian Hamilton's column from Heidelberg completed the British possession of the line of communication between Pretoria, Johannesburg, and Natal. It may be noted that the Union Jack hoisted at Standerton Court-house on June 24th, when head-quarters reached the town, was the identical flag hauled down in 1881 after the retrocession of the Transvaal. On July 5th, Generals Clery and Hart joined hands at Vlakfontein Station, and trains ran into Greylingstad from Natal. From the western Transvaal, at this time, General Barton reported that 2631 stand

of arms had been delivered up at Klerksdorp, Krügersdorp, and Potchefstroom. On July 7th Sir Redvers Buller reached Pretoria, and was reported by the Commander-in-chief as "looking very well, none the worse for the hard work he has gone through during the past eight months". We there leave the conqueror of the Boer invaders of Natal, to be heard of again in successful operations under the immediate direction of his chief, and return to General Rundle and his colleagues in the east of the Orange State.

We may illustrate the difficulties with which the British commanders had to deal in this part of the scene of warfare by some account of operations in the neighbourhood of Bethlehem. On June 5th, General Paget's Brigade, with the 38th Field Battery, occupied Lindley, and for about three weeks the force had to defend the place against repeated attacks by De Wet, the defence extending over eleven miles of ground. On June 16th the Boers began to shell the place. On the 20th a picket of the Munsters was attacked, the foe being repelled with the bayonet. Constant shelling and "sniping" followed until the 26th, when the enemy brought five guns into action and attacked the Yorkshire Light Infantry, cutting up a picket of half a company, of whom only six men were left unwounded. The Yorkshiremen finally kept the enemy at bay with the cold steel, and the Boers withdrew from the trench. Towards the close of that day the British were reinforced by the arrival of the C.I.V. Battery, and on July 1st General Clements came up with his men. On the next day, the united forces attacked the enemy, Clements operating in front, Paget on the Boer left flank. The 38th Battery was surprised by a party of the foe hidden in a mealie-field, whose heavy fire killed Major Oldfield and a subaltern and wounded ten men. The guns were saved by the Yeomanry, who dismounted and drove off the foe. The British infantry had, meanwhile, succeeded in driving the Boers from a hill called Beacon Kop. At nightfall the enemy, having laid an ambush for a picket of the Munsters, opened fire at fifty yards' range, but were in turn surprised by the Middlesex Yeomanry, who drove them away by a flank attack. On July 6th General Clements sent a messenger to Bethlehem to demand the surrender of the town. De Wet refused unconditional submission, and Clements then assailed the front and left positions,

very strongly held by the foe, while Paget moved on their right flank. Before night, two companies of the Munsters, having expended their ammunition, made a fine charge with the bayonet and stormed a kopje. At daybreak on the 7th fighting was renewed, Paget's men continuing to push round the enemy's flank, and at last the Royal Irish captured the Boer main position by a brilliant bayonet-charge, taking the enemy's 15-pounder gun, one of those lost at Stormberg. Excellent work was done by the C. I. V. Battery with their quick-firers. The Yorkshires and Munsters then advanced and took all the enemy's flank positions, while General Clements carried those in front. The British loss in this affair was about 100, the Royal Irish having about 50 casualties, and the Munsters losing four officers and 32 men. Three hundred "Bushmen", mostly South and West Australians, joined in the attack and behaved with the utmost courage. The Boers fled through Bethlehem in confusion, and occupied a very strong position, to the number of about 5000, accompanied by ex-President Steyn, on Retief's Nek, 20 miles to the south.

The task before Sir Leslie Rundle, the commander of the Eighth Division, and his assistants, Generals Clements and Paget, was one of vast difficulty. Rundle had, in fact, to hold a line a hundred miles in length, in a rugged country, against a brave, resourceful, mobile enemy, well supplied with all munitions of war, and striving, day after day, week after week, to break through to the south, and pour forces into the conquered territory. Night and day the British general was kept busy, with spies dogging him in every camp; with blacks and whites, in the pay of the foe, constantly upon his track, and reporting every move to his ever-watchful opponents. All the enemy's efforts were, however, nullified by the rapid movements of a general who worked his men in such a way that they nicknamed him "Rundle the Tramp". Luckily for the leader and his men, there was at hand, in default of other supplies, abundance of beef and mutton, and on these the British soldier was able to keep going in one of the most arduous of modern campaigns. Early in June the enemy were very active in their attempts to break through to the south of the British line from Senekal, by way of Trommel, to Ficksburg, on the Basuto border, but the British patrols were always on the alert. There was a sharp engagement, on June 22nd, about six miles west of

Senekal, when a party of Boers opened fire upon Brabant's Border Horse and the Colonial Division from farmhouses near the road. The enemy were driven out, and the houses were set on fire, in accordance with repeated warnings given by General Rundle concerning the hostile use of farms. Ex-President Steyn was very active at this time in rousing the burghers, and some thousands of Free Staters, with guns, were in the field, in commandos gathered from Wepener, Ficksburg, Ladybrand, Thabanchu, Heilbron, and Bethlehem, for which reinforcements had been sent from Kroonstad, Fauresmith (in the south-west), Frankfort (in the north-west), and Smithfield (in the south). It was, in fact, another great effort made by the people of the Free State in reply to the proclamation annexing their territory, and much energy and activity were displayed in many quarters. On June 26th, General Paget, in beating off Boers who attacked a convoy of stores for the Lindley garrison, had 10 men killed, and four officers and about 50 men wounded. Lord Methuen, in the Lindley district, recovered from the Boers 8000 sheep and 500 head of cattle seized by them. On July 1st, General Hunter, who had been advancing southwards from Heidelberg, and had crossed the Vaal into the Orange River State, occupied Frankfort, and on July 4th, Paget, after fighting with a commando eight miles east of Lindley, reached Blaauw Kopje, 15 miles north-west of Bethlehem. On the same day, the foe were repulsed in a fierce midnight attack on Ficksburg, and Steyn escaped capture by leaving Bethlehem for Fouriesburg, south-east of this last place, and a few miles north of the Basuto frontier. It was a fact significant of failing supplies that the enemy, before their retirement from Bethlehem, released about 800 prisoners, Yeomanry and Derbyshire Militia, by putting them across the Natal border *en route* for Ladysmith.

By able, systematic strategy, the Free State commandos were forced away from numerous strong positions, deprived of Lindley, Bethlehem, and Senekal, and wedged in a comparatively small area with the Drakensberg and the Basutoland mountains as a barrier on the east, and an ever-tightening cordon of British troops near at hand on the north, south, and west. The Boer forces driven towards Fouriesburg numbered over 6000 men. A decisive hour was, in the middle of July, drawing rapidly near. Sir Archibald Hunter was now in the field with Rundle, Paget,

and Clements, and Bruce-Hamilton and Hector Macdonald had also arrived with their men. On July 22nd, Rundle's Division advanced to Julie's Kraal, midway between Hammonia and Ficksburg, through a heavy storm of wind and rain. The enemy were in a position of great strength, flanked by other kopjes and surrounded by deep dongas and sluits. On the following day, the British opened a tremendous cannonade and rifle-fire, and the Scots Guards steadily advanced, under an unceasing fire from the Boers, to a donga close to the enemy's main position, Julie's Kraal. No attack was made on the Boers except with artillery, but they were effectually stayed from breaking away to the south-west, towards Thabanchu and the country where they had already given so much trouble to the British forces.

The Free State Boers were now, with a notable exception, enclosed in the valley of the upper course of the Caledon River, a region about 28 miles in length and 15 miles across its widest part. The district is really a series of valleys interspersed by great kopjes affording very strong positions. The outlets from the region, known as "neks", were hard to attack. On the south-east lies Commando Nek, facing towards Basutoland, and consisting of a narrow pass running up over a jagged kopje, with two greater kopjes on the flanks. Slabbert's Nek is a huge gash in the face of a cliff, and was the enemy's way towards the north. To the westward lies Retief's Nek. South-east, towards Harrismith, is Naauwpoort Nek, and Golden Gate, a narrow chasm worn by wind and weather through the ring of mountains, faces the east. A general movement of all the forces, now under Sir Archibald Hunter's command, was made on July 23rd. Late on the previous night, De Wet and his commando, numbering about 1500 men, with five guns, and Steyn escaped through Slabbert's Nek to the north. This very ingenious and enterprising leader was thus enabled to give abundant trouble in days to come. On the two days following his evasion, Generals Clements and Paget, with trifling loss, forced Slabbert's Nek, chiefly by artillery-fire. Bruce-Hamilton closed in upon Golden Gate, and Hector Macdonald invested Naauwpoort Nek. The chief fighting took place in Hunter's attack on Retief's Nek, a narrow pass with huge hills on each side, very strongly held by riflemen hidden among the rocks. After fighting all day, the Black Watch at

dusk captured a hill on the British left front, and the position was held by the battalion during the night, aided by Rimington's and Lovat's Scouts. The Highland Light Infantry and the Sussex Regiment made very gallant but unsuccessful assaults on the hills flanking the pass, the ground being very steep, and the enemy invisible and strongly entrenched. On the next morning, July 24th, while a thick mist lay on the hills, the Nek was forced by a brilliant charge of the Seaforths, aided by heavy firing from positions gained during the night by the Highland Light Infantry, Rimington's Guides, and Lord Lovat's Scouts, and by the shells of the British 5-inch guns.

The end was now close at hand. General Prinsloo, chief in command of the hostile forces, was in a helpless position, surrounded by waves of khaki-clad troops in irresistible strength. Hunter, inside the valley, threatened the rear of the Boers at Commando Nek. A number of the enemy, under the clever Commander Olivier, had escaped through Golden Gate before the passage was closed by Bruce-Hamilton, but the bulk of the Boer force, with wagons, guns, baggage, and vast supplies, were in a trap. The order to strike was given to General Rundle, to whose masterly manœuvres and arduous labours for many weeks success was mainly due, and his division rolled forward, an impetuous storm of war, on the town of Fouriesburg. The Leinsters and the Scots Guards, tall, gaunt warriors, swung onward and upwards over the rock-strewn ground, driving the foe before them like deer in the terror inspired by their coming. After a halt for supper on hard biscuit, and sleep on the freezing earth, onward again they swept before the stars had vanished in the dawn, a band of fighters dreadful to see in the grime of their faces and the tatters of their garb. At the same time, Sir Archibald Hunter was pressing towards Fouriesburg from Retief's Nek, with Rimington's Scouts well in advance of the main body. Rundle gave an order to the daring, dashing Driscoll, captain of the Scouts, a man who had done invaluable service to the Eighth Division, and the Irishman, with Rundle's aide-de-camp—Lord Kensington of the 15th Hussars—and Lieutenant Tempest, of the Scots Guards, on his right and left, and with a small escort of Scouts and Scots Guards, dashed into the town, the last stronghold of the foe in the Orange River State, where Lord Kensington, in the very

teeth of the enemy, pulled down the Boer flag. On July 29th, the whole of the Eighth Division, with Paget's and Hunter's men, preceded by a powerful artillery, advanced in open order over the veldt, and in the evening General Prinsloo was negotiating terms of surrender with Sir Archibald Hunter. On the following day, July 30th, the whole force with Prinsloo, about 1000 men, rode in from their laager, and laid down their arms under the Union Jack, which was the first part in the most important military event of the war since the surrender of Cronje at Paardeberg, one which was a fatal blow to the Boer cause south of the Vaal. Immense supplies of cattle, sheep, horses, and wagons were taken by the British, but this was only the beginning of the collapse. On the same day, 1200 more men surrendered, with five commandants, giving up their rifles, 650 ponies, and an Armstrong gun. The loss of the British force, which had acted with celerity unprecedented in the campaign, displaying splendid intrepidity in sweeping through the dangerous mountain-passes, had been very small, the enemy seeming paralysed by the sight of the numbers opposed to them. The Orange flag pulled down at Fouriesburg was presented by General Hunter, in presence of the Staff, to Captain Driscoll, as a memento of the success and a recognition of his eminent services. On July 31st, several bodies of Boers came into camp, surrendering their arms, including a choice corps styled the Senekal Commando, about 600 strong. Many men surrendered to Macdonald near Naauwpoort's Nek. The summing-up of this great success shows the release of about 200 British prisoners at Fouriesburg; the capture of about 4500 Boers, with three guns, including two which belonged to "U" Battery Royal Horse Artillery, and large quantities of stock, including over 4000 horses and ponies; and the destruction of about twelve hundred thousand rounds of the enemy's ammunition. On August 6th, General Rundle, escorted by his Staff and a Yeomanry detachment, arrived at Harrismith, receiving a hearty welcome from the citizens, of whom a large proportion are Scottish. The town was already occupied by General Macdonald with the Highland Brigade.

The wily De Wet, after his escape from the toils set for him by the British commanders, became for months a torment to his foes in guerilla-warfare. On August 8th he was across the Vaal, Lord Kitchener pursuing him with a force of cavalry and mounted

infantry, while Lord Methuen, near Potchefstroom, sought to intercept the Boer leader. Both these British generals had engagements with the enemy's rear-guard, cutting off a few wagons, but it was found impossible to overtake and hem in the main body. On August 13th, Kitchener and Methuen, still following De Wet and Steyn, were ten miles east of Ventersdorp, again in touch with the fleeing rear-guard; while General Smith-Dorrien, also in pursuit, reported that the 2nd Shropshire Light Infantry had recently marched 43 miles in 32 hours, and the City Imperial Volunteers, under Colonel Mackinnon, 224 miles in 14 days, in a vain attempt to prevent De Wet from crossing the railway from Krügersdorp to Potchefstroom. The enemy who could not be caught were, however, seriously harassed by the close pursuit, being driven by Lord Kitchener to blow up three wagons, while one British officer and eighty men escaped from De Wet's camp, and Lord Methuen captured one of his guns. The prisoners who got away reported the strength of the Boer leader's force at 7000, as the farmers in the districts through which he passed had again taken up arms, after surrender and promise of peaceable conduct, and joined him. On August 15th, De Wet had crossed the railway and was making north to join Delarey, who was holding Rüstenburg, Lord Kitchener, with other leaders, still pursuing and pressing the enemy hard. The Boer leader's superior knowledge of the country made him more than a match for his swift pursuers, whose wagons had double teams of picked animals. Lord Roberts now issued a new proclamation prescribing rigorous punishment for all persons breaking the oath of neutrality, or not taking the oath in districts under British occupation. This measure, which caused faithless farmers, on return to their homes, to find them in ashes, with all the stock and fodder carried off, had a considerable effect on De Wet's followers. His own command was soon reduced to a few hundred men, the force having broken up into small parties, some endeavouring to return southward, while others, abandoning their transport, took to the hills with mule-packs. Baden-Powell, engaged to the north of Pretoria with the rear-guard of a commando under Grobler, drove the enemy back on the east of Pienaar's River, and on August 21st occupied the railway-station of that name, having prevented the Boers from getting eastwards to join Louis Botha. During the fighting near Warmbad, "B.-P."

rescued about 100 British prisoners, and captured 25 Boers, including a German artillery-officer and a Johannesburg field-cornet. The Rhodesian Regiment suffered a severe loss in the death of Lieut.-col. Spreckley, C.M.G., an officer who did excellent service under Sir Frederick Carrington in the Matabele rebellion of 1896, as commander of the Bulawayo Field Force, and had played his part in the relief of Mafeking.

We may notice, in connection with the fruitless pursuit of De Wet at this stage of the long campaign, that Lord Kitchener, at the most critical time of his movements, was obliged to turn aside with a large portion of his force in order to effect the relief of a beleaguered body of brave Colonials. The episode of the Boer War which should become historically known as the "Eland's River Defence" was one of the finest achievements of the whole struggle. In the last days of July, 1900, a force of Colonials found themselves at Brakfontein, a little village on Eland's River nearly 100 miles west by north of Pretoria, and on the main road from Rüstenburg to Zeerust, about midway between the two towns. They had in charge a very valuable convoy of stores for Rüstenburg, which had halted on the road because of tidings that Delarey, with a large force of Boers, was besieging the town. That able commander, driven off by Baden-Powell, and well served by his scouts, turned against the convoy as a prize well worth the winning. Early on the morning of Saturday, August 4th, came the sound of rifle-fire as the Boers crept up from the river, "sniping" as they advanced. An outpost on the veldt, after firing three shots as an alarm, rode into camp; the riderless horse of one man came in, and it was supposed that he was killed or taken. The British laager, nearly square in form, comprised about five acres of slightly-elevated ground, lying across the road, half a mile from the river, with little natural defence. There were 148 Queenslanders; 113 New South Wales Bushmen; about 50 Victorians; two Tasmanians; about 80 Southern Rhodesia Volunteers; and a mixed body of Bechuanaland Rifles, South Africa Police, Western Australians, and Mashonaland Squadron of the Rhodesian Regiment—in all from 470 to 480 men. The Queenslanders were under the command of Major Tunbridge, of the Third Queensland Contingent, an artillery-officer in the colonial service. They guarded the north-east and south sides of the camp. The New

South Wales Bushmen (the A squadron) were under Captain Thomas, with Lieuts. Zouch, Cope, Cornwall, and Bromowski; the Victorians, with the few Western Australians, were in charge of Captain Ham. Captain Butters commanded the Southern Rhodesians, and Major Hopper the Mashonaland Squadron, with Lieut. Montague, of the Rhodesians. The British artillery consisted of one 2·5 mountain screw-gun, firing a 7-lb. shell, and two Maxims—a poor armament for response to five field-guns, including a 15-pounder captured at Colenso, four pom-poms, and some Maxims planted to the north, east, and west of the laager, at about 2000 yards' range. As outer defence-posts the Colonials had 50 men about 200 yards to the north-east of the camp, entrenched among a belt of trees; 50 men under Lieut. Zouch, on a little kopje, 400 yards to the south-west; and about 100 men, with a Maxim, under Captain Butters, on another hill about 400 yards farther out in the same direction.

The weakness of the British position, apart from the enemy's vastly superior force both in men and guns, lay in being surrounded by kopjes higher than the two held by the garrison; in the easy range for the Boer guns; and in the cover which permitted the Boer "snipers", firing from all sides, to approach, unseen, within 900 yards of the laager. At first sight nothing could appear more hopeless than the prospect of a successful defence. The enemy were from 2500 to 3000 strong, commanded, as we have seen, by Delarey. We may here note that the occupants of the camp included over 1500 horses, transport-oxen, and mules, huddled together in full exposure to the hostile fire. On August 4th the Boer guns opened with an accurate fire of shells directed at the rising ground holding the telegraph-blockhouse, head-quarters, and a stone kraal containing the ammunition. All day the deadly work went on, the enemy's pom-poms working with a horrid sound like a locomotive struggling up hill and emitting great gusts of steam to the accompaniment of a steam-hammer, and pouring in constant streams of 1-lb. shells, 25 in each "belt", bursting on contact. The first day's casualties reached 32 killed and wounded, while the hapless animals for draught and riding were slain and mutilated by hundreds. On the second day, August 5th, the dreadful "pounding" was maintained, and during the first 48 hours of

the siege more than 2500 shells, by count, were flung into the position. It is marvellous that a man of the whole force escaped death or disablement; all, indeed, must have been shot down but for the strenuous efforts made, especially by night, to provide some shelter from the hail of shells and bullets. Among these imperfect defences were rough stone walls or breastworks called "schanzes" or "sconces", blinded with earth at the front, and crowned with filled biscuit-boxes, bags of flour, and cases of Australian mutton. A kind of zareba was also formed of ox-wagons, and the garrison dug their way to safety in some fashion by burrowing into the ground with "drives" and tunnels, largely the work of practical miners in the force, who provided the excavations with shell-proof roofs of earth. The brave garrison were not slow or slack in retaliation for the enemy's fire. A Boer pom-pom at 1500 yards was silenced by the splendid accuracy of the Queenslanders' rifle-fire, and the work of the New South Wales Bushmen against other weapons of the same class was very effective. The solitary 7-pounder roared away, and encouraged the defenders by its sound, while its shells made mischief with the foe.

On August 6th, the third day, the garrison sustained a severe loss in the killing of Lieutenant Annat by a shell. This officer, of the Queensland force, was a fearless fighter who had been at Mafeking siege. At Eland's River he was conspicuous for courage, always moving about through the thickest fire, and making frequent visits to the hospital. On the day before he fell, he volunteered to lead a party to capture a Boer gun, and it was as the light was fading that he fell under the last shell fired from that very weapon. Wounded and dying men showed perfect heroism. A New Zealander's last words, when the chaplain asked for "a message to his people", were "Tell them that I trusted in God and I died game". The besieged men had to endure a bitter disappointment on the afternoon of Sunday, August 5th (the second day), when Sir Frederick Carrington appeared in the distance with a considerable force, including guns. Loud cheers arose from the besieged as they saw the vanguard of his mounted men open out in beautiful order, but, after the exchange of a few shots with the enemy, the force withdrew and the Colonials were left to their own devices. On

the evening of August 6th, the Boers, encouraged by Carrington's retreat, and knowing that the kopje held by Captain Butters and his men was the key of the British position, made a vigorous attempt to storm the hill, but were beaten back with severe loss by the fire of the Maxim and the rifles delivered at 70 to 80 yards range. It was an additional hardship for the garrison that water could be procured only with loss and risk. The river was half a mile distant, and a bright moon gave the enemy a clear view of the men with the water-carts in their nightly journeys to and fro, under sharp Boer "sniping" all the way, with damage to horse, man, or mule.

On August 8th, Lieutenant Zouch and ten men made a night-attack on a farmhouse, and captured a Boer, along with the more valuable prize of fourteen large newly-baked loaves. On the following day, Delarey, with compliments on the gallant defence, offered very favourable terms of surrender, but the overture was met with a prompt refusal. The spirit of the Colonials was, indeed, such that their commanders could not, if they had wished, have mentioned the word "capitulation" so long as there was a cartridge left, or a morsel of food, or shelter for men devoid of power to return a shot. Day after day the firing went on, the garrison hoping for speedy relief. At last, on August 15th, the twelfth day of the siege, no reply came to the British dawn-of-day volleys, and the scouts, cautiously creeping out, found that the enemy had vanished. In the evening-gloom a column was seen far away, moving with flanking-parties and advanced guard. At 3 a.m. on August 16th some Western Australians rode into camp, and at 7.30 Lord Kitchener and his staff arrived, with 10,000 men at their backs. The "dirty, ragged, bearded" relieving-force, as they are described by an eye-witness, included the 9th, 12th, 16th, and 17th Lancers; the 10th Hussars; Household Cavalry; and the 5th Mounted Infantry; with three battalions—the City Imperial Volunteers, West Yorks, and Shropshires—a battery and pom-poms, with 115 New South Wales men—all that were left of two contingents. The relieving general's first visit was to the hospital, where he showed his sympathy with the wounded, and declared that the "garrison had had a hot time, and made a wonderful defence". As Lord Kitchener's officers strolled about the camp, some of them took photographs of various points, and

all expressed amazement at the defences thrown up, and were full of praise for all that had been done to keep the flag flying. The supply of ammunition was running short when relief came, and every cartridge would have been used up if the Boers had attempted a general storm. The Colonials had all sworn never to surrender, and it is certain that, when they could fire no more, they would have "lain low" and charged with the bayonet. The camp presented a horrible scene of carnage at the close of the siege. Of the garrison, 73 men—51 whites and 22 Kaffirs—were killed and wounded, the number slain being 17. Most of the casualties were due to shells, which caused 65 per cent of the wounds, the remainder coming from Mauser and some "big-game" bullets. The draught-animals and the "mounts" were practically "wiped out". Among 487 horses, 269 mules, and 856 transport-oxen only 56 horses, 29 mules, and 106 oxen were left alive.

We conclude our account of this grand feat of arms with a special reference to the two men who were most conspicuous among a band of heroes. Major Tunbridge, of the Queensland Mounted Infantry, was in himself a host. Adored by his men, he kept them in the best of spirits by his cheering words and demeanour. His practical knowledge of artillery was of the highest service for the defence. The solitary seven-pounder was by him, on the first day, four times unscrewed for repair and put together for renewed service against the foe. Surgeon-Captain Albert T. Duka, of the same corps, was even more distinguished. This gentleman, of whom the University of Cambridge may well be proud, is Magyar-English in race, son of a notable hero, Theodore Duka, M.D., F.R.C.S., a retired Surgeon-Lieut.-colonel of H.M.'s Bengal Army, Member of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Knight of the Order of the Iron Crown of Austria. He served, in the war of 1848–49, as staff-officer to the great Magyar soldier and patriot, General Arthur Görgei, who succumbed, in his valiant and able efforts for Hungarian freedom, only to overwhelming Russian forces. His aide-de-camp, reaching England as an exile, entered the Indian army, and served throughout the Mutiny war. His son, Dr. Duka, of the Eland's River Defence, graduated as B.Sc. at Caius College, Cambridge, in 1888, and was, moreover, so distinguished on the river as to be "reserve-man", in 1887 and 1888, for the victorious Cambridge eights on the Putney to

Mortlake course. After a medical career as student at St. George's Hospital, and a period of private practice in London, Dr. Duka emigrated to Queensland, and, in the fourth year of his colonial life, went with the Third Contingent to South Africa. At Eland's River he was the only medical officer present with the force, with no aid beyond that of his six "orderlies". His hospital consisted of three ambulance-wagons, with a 4-foot-high parapet on two sides only, made of biscuit-boxes and the like, put up under fire, and raised later to 6 feet and strengthened by earth and stones. In this miserable shelter, into which 15-pound and 9-pound shells, and 1-pound pom-pom missiles were frequently dropped, the heroic surgeon, with wonderful nerve and skill, performed three amputations and 48 other operations in the extraction of bullets and fragments of shell.

On August 17th a military funeral-service was held, the troops being drawn up in a square about the graves, and the different bugle-calls being sounded between the volleys fired by the men. White stones were gathered and placed around the tombs, and head-stones were put up with the names of the dead carved thereon, the little cemetery being enclosed in a fence of barbed-wire. The defence-force then slowly retired to Mafeking with Lord Methuen, and thence the Australians went round to Pretoria by rail, via De Aar, Norval's Pont, and Bloemfontein. Such was the Eland's River achievement; thus did the Colonials of Australia and South Africa maintain the honour of the flag.

Early in August, a plot was discovered at Pretoria which designed the massacre of the British officers in the town and the kidnapping of Lord Roberts for delivery to a Boer commando kept in waiting near at hand. As is usual in these dastardly and murderous enterprises, a revelation was made, and the conspirators were found to be residents of the town who had taken the oath of neutrality. A trial by court-martial ended in the conviction of a foreigner, Lieut. Cordua, who was duly shot on August 24th. Measures were then taken to clear the capital and Johannesburg of the foreign rascals and Boer spies who infested them. We now record the advance of Lord Roberts eastwards to the Portuguese frontier, a series of operations by which the Transvaal was cleared of all combatants in regular, civilized warfare.

On August 7th, General Buller, who was to play a great part

in the coming strife, marched north-eastwards from Paardekop, on the Johannesburg-Natal railway, and reached Amerspoort, 18 miles away, having moved on a front extending over eight miles. His advance was resisted by the enemy, comprising commandos from Wakkerstroom, Standerton, Ermelo, and Swaziland, the main force numbering 2000 men, under General Christian Botha, with six guns and four pom-poms. The centre British fighting-line was composed of the Gordons and 60th Rifles, while Lord Dundonald's cavalry swept round to the left, covering a vast tract of country, and Strathcona's Horse scouted with great enterprise and dash. The Boers constantly fell back from strong positions, assailed by heavy fire from siege and naval guns and field-artillery, sweeping the hills on all sides. Elaborate entrenchments were thus abandoned by the foe. On August 9th Buller was across the Vaal, and three days later his forces entered Ermelo. The enemy were still troublesome near to Pretoria, Paget being engaged with them at Waterval, 15 miles to the north, and the New Zealanders, under Carrington, fighting with great gallantry in driving Boers from strong positions at Buffelshoek. Ian Hamilton, in the Magaliesberg range, west of Pretoria, captured two Krupp guns and some wagons, and, near Pienaar's River Station, he took 13 prisoners, several Cape carts, 500 cattle, and 1150 sheep.

The Commander-in-chief had started eastwards from headquarters, and on August 24th he was at Wonderfontein, on the railway, more than 100 miles east of Pretoria. Pole-Carew had already occupied Belfast, and Buller and his men, having continued their northern march, were a few miles south-west of Dalmanutha Station, east of Belfast, while General French, with four cavalry-brigades, was on the move east of Machadodorp, still farther from Pretoria. During Buller's advance, two companies of the 1st Liverpools had got, through some mistake, into a hollow where they were surrounded by Boers, and cut up with the loss of 10 men killed, an officer and 45 men wounded, and 32 prisoners. On August 25th, Lord Roberts reached Belfast, and held a consultation with Buller, French, and Pole-Carew, the result of which was soon to appear. On August 26th operations against the enemy under Botha began, and on that day extended over a circumference of nearly 30 miles. Lyttelton's Division, with two brigades of cavalry, the whole under Buller, acted south-west of

Dalmanutha. French, with two cavalry-brigades, moved north by the west of Belfast, driving the enemy to Lakenvley, on the road to Lydenburg. When French reached that point, Pole-Carew, with the Guards' Brigade of his (the Eleventh) division, advanced from Belfast in support. The difficult country, well suited to Boer tactics, and not favourable for cavalry movements, enabled the enemy to make a stubborn resistance, supported by three "Long Toms", and many other guns and pom-poms, against the advance of Buller and Pole-Carew. The Guards came under a fire so incessant and accurate that it was impossible to advance beyond a certain ridge 800 yards from the Boers, and the enemy could be assailed only with volleys at that range, and with a hot fire from the naval 12-pounders. Lord Roberts was on the field, and the infantry demonstration, though it seemed to be fruitless, enabled him to ascertain how far the Boer front was held in any strength north of the railway. French, far away to the north, completely turned the Boers' main position, threatening their retreat on Lydenburg.

About midway between Belfast and Dalmanutha Stations, a long spur crosses the railway from north to south, ending, just south of the line, in a ragged kopje called Berg-en-dal, commanding the main valley. The rocks of this hill form in themselves a natural fortress of considerable strength, and the enemy had improved the position by throwing up the stout walls, called by them "schantzes", which form secure cover for 200 men or more, with loopholed nooks to crouch in, and proof against any artillery-fire except direct hits from lyddite shells. Behind the kopje their horses were penned in a kraal near the little farm-house of Berg-en-dal. The only line of retreat was along the neck of the spur, and thence into either of the ravines flanking the hill. In order to cover retirement, if it became needful, the Boers had a "Long Tom" and a 15-pounder posted on a kopje a mile and a half away. These guns, however, were silenced by the blue-jackets under Captain Beecroft, who threw lyddite shells with wonderful accuracy and effect from his 4·7 guns at a range of 8500 yards, or close upon five miles. Three other British guns—two naval 12-pounders and a 4·7—were also pounding away, and the enemy's guns were withdrawn. A helio-graph sent a signal to Beecroft, from far down in the valley,

that Buller's infantry were waiting to advance. The fire from the kopje was such as to check this movement, but Buller's guns opened from several points at once, and, in particular, two Royal Horse Artillery batteries got into position a mile in front of the naval guns, whence they could enfilade the enemy's "schantzes". They did not open fire until, after a bombardment of three hours from the heavier British guns, Buller's infantry began to move forward again. Then suddenly the whole force of attacking artillery opened with a torrent of shells on the kopje, and the infantry-line marched steadily to the assault. The 1st Inniskilling Fusiliers and the 2nd Battalion Rifle Brigade were the assailants, and the Boers, as the Rifle Brigade men drew near, sprang to their feet, fired a few hasty rounds at point-blank range, and then rushed for their horses and hurried away under shell-fire from the British guns. Three officers and twenty non-coms. and men of the Rifle Brigade were killed in the capture of the strong position of Berg-en-dal, the other losses not being serious. This success was followed by a general retreat of the enemy, and on August 28th General Buller's advance-troops occupied Machadodorp with little opposition. General French had turned the enemy out of Elandsfontein, and the country was cleared for a further advance. Waterval Boven, Waterval Onder, and Nooitgedacht, all lying east, towards the frontier, were occupied before August ended, and at the last place 1800 British prisoners were released. Some of the officers had been sent to Barberton by the enemy, but nine, including the Earl of Leitrim, made their escape and arrived in camp. The Boer prisoners reported that Krüger, Steyn, Botha, Schalk-Burger, and Lucas Meyer had fled by train to Nelspruit, many miles to the east. A large number of the enemy, it was found, had fled, south of the railway, to Barberton, with the view of making a final stand in that district. On September 1st, Buller moved 14 miles north-westwards along the road to Lydenburg and crossed the Crocodile River to Badfontein, north of which the Boers were concentrating in the mountains.

On the same day, September 1st, 1900, Lord Roberts made known an event of great importance to the empire in the following terms:—*Lord Roberts to Secretary of State for War. Belfast, 1st September, 9.55 a.m.* "Under the provisions of her Majesty's

warrant, dated the 4th July, 1900, I have this day issued at army head-quarters, Belfast, the proclamations announcing that the Transvaal will henceforth form part of her Majesty's dominions."

Ian Hamilton, with Brocklehurst's cavalry-brigade, was moving towards Lydenburg in aid of Buller's operations, and he succeeded in turning the enemy's right flank. Meanwhile, the Leicester Regiment and the 1st King's Royal Rifle Corps, acting under Buller against the Boer left, did good work in scrambling up a steep mountain, dragging after them a battery of guns, which opened a heavy fire on the foe. Lord Dundonald was advancing up the valley leading to Lydenburg. The issue of these movements was that on September 6th Dundonald and Brocklehurst occupied the town, the enemy having evacuated their strong positions, and the Union Jack was hoisted over the Landdrost's office on the following day, when Generals Buller and Ian Hamilton had arrived. The enemy, as usual, took off their wagons and guns, separating into two bodies, one of which went north, by way of Krüger's Post, to Pilgrim's Rest; the other, under Botha, retiring eastwards to Spitz Kop. On September 9th, Buller, following up his success, crossed the Mauchberg range about 10 miles east of Lydenburg, after driving the enemy from a precipitous ridge 1800 feet in height, cleft by deep ravines. This strong position was stormed with the utmost gallantry by the Devons on the right, the Royal Irish in the centre, and the Royal Scots on the left. The British loss was under 50, of whom 3 men were killed and 16 wounded in the Volunteer Company of the Gordon Highlanders by a shrapnel-shell bursting over them as they marched in column at a great distance from the Boer guns. The Commander-in-chief's report said: "Notwithstanding this heavy loss, the company, which has distinguished itself on several occasions, continued to march forward steadily as if nothing had happened". Buller, still fighting victoriously, kept on towards Spitz Kop along the narrow road from mountain to mountain, skirting great gorges, his artillery hard at work, and the infantry advancing over the ridges in their usual style. On September 10th the British leader was at Klipgat, half-way between the Mauchberg and Spitz Kop, driving the Boers before him, capturing several tons of food-stores and the tackle of a heavy gun, and some of its ammunition,

and forcing the foe to roll thirteen wagons, some carrying ammunition, down a mountain-side to prevent their falling into his hands.

Two days later, Mr. Krüger was a fugitive on Portuguese territory at Lourenço Marques, Delagoa Bay, having enacted the farce of appointing Mr. Schalk-Burger "Acting-President" during a six months' leave of absence accorded after examination by two doctors. He was accompanied by Mr. Reitz and many other ex-officials of the state which had now become incorporated in the British Empire. The Portuguese Government, now becoming ostentatiously friendly towards the victors, sent instructions from Lisbon to the Governor at Lourenço Marques, which caused Krüger to be treated simply as a guest without recognition of him in any official capacity. An immediate result of his flight was that Boer creditors in all quarters demanded payment in gold, refusing to accept Mr. Krüger's notes. Lord Roberts, on September 11th, issued a proclamation placing the whole of the Transvaal under martial law, a measure which enabled him to deal promptly and severely with the marauders and rascals, in many cases mere foreign "scum", who were incessantly damaging railway-lines, "looting" in all quarters, and ill-treating Boers who had wisely submitted to the judgment of war. In this document, printed in English and Dutch, and widely circulated, the British leader pointed out that Mr. Krüger, by his recent action, had really "severed his official connection with the Transvaal", and had shown "how hopeless, in his opinion, is the war which has now been carried on for nearly a year". Lord Roberts then disclosed a fact which was, he believed, "probably unknown to the inhabitants of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony", and which, we may remark, was somewhat surprising to the people of the British Empire at large, viz. "that nearly 15,000 of the Boers' fellow-subjects are now prisoners of war, not one of whom will be released until those now in arms against us surrender unconditionally". The Field-marshal concluded with a stern warning that he should use every means in his power to bring irregular warfare to an early conclusion, the measures which he was compelled to adopt being "those which the customs of war prescribe as being applicable to such cases". "They are", he declared, "ruinous to the country, entail endless suffering on the burghers and their

families, and the longer this guerilla-warfare continues, the more vigorously must they be enforced."

On September 13th, Buller's troops were in possession, without resistance, of Spitz Kop, where they found 300,000 lbs. weight of Boer supplies, chiefly rice, sugar, flour, and coffee, and about 300 boxes of Martini-Henry ammunition. The greater part of the force opposed to him consisted of mercenaries and Cape Colony rebels. During Buller's operations, Pole-Carew, with the Guards and the 18th Brigade, had been clearing the line of railway towards Komati Poort of parties of Boers; occupying Nelspruit, Avoca, and Kaapmuiden Stations, capturing prisoners and wagons, and securing, at the last place, a great quantity of rolling-stock, including many locomotives. At this time, Sept. 18th, Portuguese troops sent from Lisbon were lining the border, and Boers in Portuguese territory were not allowed to return to the Transvaal. Telegrams from Lourenço Marques on Sept. 20th reported that the Boers had placed on the hills overlooking Komati Poort, the frontier-station, two "Long Toms", and 10 other guns, including "pom-poms" and Maxims, and that the force there was 3000 strong; that wholesale desertions were taking place, that drunkenness was rife, and that daily conflicts amongst the Boers themselves occurred. The last regular Transvaal army was becoming a disorderly rabble. About 700 of the force above mentioned crossed into Portuguese territory, and the rest took up positions on the Lebombo range, lofty, precipitous hills overhanging the Komati valley. The final collapse in this region came on September 24th, when the Guards' Brigade occupied Komati Poort after the exchange of a few rifle-shots. The railway-bridge had been prepared for destruction, but was found intact; a very large amount of rolling-stock and locomotives, and some truck-loads of "Long Tom" ammunition, were taken. The big guns themselves had been destroyed by the enemy on the previous day, and the remnant of the enemy, crossing the border, surrendered to the Portuguese with their arms, ammunition, and horses, and were sent to Delagoa Bay. Some scores of burghers had surrendered to Buller at Spitz Kop, and some Imperial Light Horse in that district captured 20 prisoners and 200 rifles, and burnt some wagons and ammunition. It was announced at this time from Lourenço Marques that over 500 foreigners, chiefly Irish-Americans,

had reached that port for passage to Europe by the German mail-steamer, and that some Boers who tried to swim across the Komati River during the night had been killed by crocodiles. In this miserable, ignominious way, so far as his late "South African Republic" was concerned, ended Mr. Krüger's ambitious enterprise against British supremacy in South Africa. We may here note some facts concerning the enemy's guns, the weapons which we had, throughout the campaign, almost always failed to capture. At Komati Poort, General Pole-Carew found a 98-pounder ("Long Tom") and a Creusot gun destroyed, with 170 boxes of shells. General Ian Hamilton, near Hector Spruit, found in the Crocodile River several guns, mostly destroyed including two 12-pounders of "Q" Battery R.H.A., two Creusot guns, two 3-inch Krupps, a Vickers-Maxim, two pom-poms, a 7-pounder British mountain-gun, and 3 muzzle-loading mountain-guns, hexagonal bore. A large amount of rolling-stock belonging to the Netherlands Company had been burnt by the enemy, but the vehicles found intact extended, on the Selati branch alone, for a distance of eight miles.

When General French, after the battle of Berg-en-dal, pursued the Boers who had fled southwards for Barberton, he acted with his usual skill, energy, and success. On the morning of Sept. 9th he left Carolina with the First and Fourth Cavalry-brigades, Mahon's Mounted Infantry, the Suffolks and Shropshire Battalions, and Captain Beecroft's 4·7-inch naval guns. Opposed throughout his march, he drove the enemy from three successive positions, one of which was finely stormed by the Suffolks, with little loss. On the 10th he crossed Komati River, making for the high ground west of Barberton, and on Sept. 14th, completely surprising the Boers by the rapidity of his final advance with the cavalry, the British leader seized Barberton, capturing 43 much-needed locomotives and some other rolling-stock; three-weeks' supplies for his whole force, and one week's forage for his horses; taking over 100 prisoners, many Mauser rifles much ammunition, and 50 wagons; and, finally, releasing 23 British officers and 59 men, and a commandant named Schoemann, convicted by the Boers of high treason because he refused to break his parole. This brave, honest man had fought against the British at Colesberg, and surrendered to General French on the occupation of Pretoria.

We may now notice some minor operations in other quarters of the extensive scene of hostilities, in order to illustrate the work involved in the pacification of regions inhabited by such people as the Boers, who had taken into their service bodies of reckless, irresponsible foreigners. On August 27th, in the east of the Orange River Colony, a party of Boers attacked Winburg on three sides, and were beaten off with considerable loss by Bruce-Hamilton, who succeeded in capturing Commandant Olivier and his three sons. Olivier had been, throughout the war, the moving spirit amongst the Boers in the south-east of the Orange River State, and his capture was of importance for the British cause. It was he who commanded the Boer forces at Stormberg when Gatacre's reverse occurred, and there was no more dangerous foe than he for his combination of audacity and shrewdness. To him was also due the gathering of the scattered commandos, in March, 1900, along the Orange River border, and the retreat of the whole body through the rich districts of the south-eastern Free State, sweeping the country clean of cattle and corn, and reaching in safety the region north of Ladybrand. The Boers who were now repulsed from Winburg hurried off to Ladybrand, which was held by one company of the Worcesters and two small troops of Yeomanry. The enemy surrounded the British entrenched position on the morning of Sept. 2nd, and demanded a surrender, which was promptly declined. The Boers then began a heavy bombardment. Lord Roberts, on hearing the news, telegraphed to Captain Groves, the officer in command, to hold out at all risks. General Kelly-Kenny, commanding at Bloemfontein, sent off a small relieving-column under Lieut.-col. White, R.A. The 150 troops invested burned their stores in the market-square to prevent them falling into the hands of the Boers, who were in great force, comprising four commandos, and 200 of Theron's Scouts composed of men of various nationalities. The enemy, early on Sept. 4th, attacked the little Ladybrand garrison in force with rifle-fire, and, during the brief siege, they fired 320 rounds from their guns into the position occupied by the British outside the town, with a front of about 1½ miles. The enemy retired on the mere approach of the relieving-force on that evening, "looting" the stores and carrying off all the horses in the place. On Sept. 13th, General Macdonald intercepted a force of about 800 men,

with three guns, between Winburg and the Vet River, and attacked them with the Black Watch, the Highland Light Infantry, and Lord Lovat's and Driscoll's Scouts. The enemy soon retired in disorder, and were pursued for miles by Lovat's Scouts. Thirty-three wagons, forming about half the Boer transport, were taken, with 270 trek-oxen, and a large amount of food, clothing, and ammunition. A few days later, the Colonial Division, moving about between Lindley and Heilbron, captured 2000 sheep, and 120 cattle.

During the month of September, the enemy were enduring similar losses at various points in the Transvaal. General Barton, near Krügersdorp, captured 720 trek-oxen, 950 cattle, 1000 sheep, 34 ponies, and 17 good wagons. Colonel Plumer, near Warmbad, took cattle and sheep by hundreds, large supplies of food, 100 rifles, 40,000 rounds of ammunition, and many wagons. At Erste Fabrieken, the first station east of Pretoria, ten men, with several women and children, came into camp and delivered up 5000 sheep, 800 cattle, 50 horses, some mules, 8 wagons, and 6 Cape carts. East of the Pienaars River, a small column of Baden-Powell's force, led by the active Colonel Plumer, drove off a commando under Pretorius, capturing 1000 cattle, 31 wagons, 26 prisoners, and 90 Martini rifles. Lord Methuen, attacking a Boer camp on the Malopo, routed the enemy, and captured 30 prisoners, 22 wagons, and 40,000 rounds of ammunition, the casualties on his side being confined to the Australian Bushmen, who had nine men wounded. On September 19th, the same commander, near Mamusa, in the south-west of the Transvaal, attacked a Boer convoy, routed the escort, retook a 15-pounder lost at Colenso, and captured 28 prisoners, 26 wagons, 8000 cattle, 4000 sheep, and about 20,000 rounds of small-arm ammunition. On the following day, Methuen, in the same district, drove off a party of Boers, taking 634 cattle, 3000 sheep, and a number of horses. General Paget, while a party belonging to Erasmus' commando, on September 23rd, was vainly attacking the Elands River railway-station, east of Pretoria, made a forced night-march of 26 miles with the West Riding Regiment, two companies of the Wiltshires, two companies of the Munster Fusiliers, the C.I.V. Battery, and two 5-inch guns. In the end he surprised and captured Erasmus's camp, taking 2500 cattle, 6000 sheep,

50 horses, 12 prisoners, and some rifles and ammunition. A gallant little action was fought on September 5th, when a Boer commando, estimated at 200 men, with two guns and a "pom-pom", attacked a position held by 75 Canadians between Wonderfontein and Middelburg. Under cover of a heavy artillery-fire the enemy advanced to within 50 yards. The brave Dominion men opened fire with their machine-gun, but the weapon "jammed" and became useless, and with rifle-fire only the foe were kept at bay. The Canadians maintained a stubborn defence from daybreak until 9 a.m., losing a small outpost of six men, cut off and captured, and having two officers and two men slightly wounded. Ample aid was promptly sent, but before reinforcements arrived the Boers had been beaten off with considerable loss.

It is impossible here to give any detailed account of the last phase of the struggle—the irritating, useless, costly, and, for the Boers, exhausting guerilla-warfare waged in many parts of the conquered and annexed territory during the last three months of 1900. A few incidents, including more "disasters" or "reverses" for British troops, are now recorded. On October 1st, near Pan railway-station, companies of the 2nd Coldstream Guards and "details" of other battalions had 5 men killed and an officer and 18 men wounded by Boer fire, at close range, on a derailed train. On the following day, General Buller returned to Lydenburg, after a successful march from Spitz Kop to Pilgrim's Hill, Krüger's Post, and other points, during which the South African Light Horse, under Colonel Byng, were very active. The captures made included 109 surrendered burghers, 600 cattle, 4000 sheep, and 150 wagon-loads of supplies, and 184,000 rounds of small-arm ammunition had been destroyed. The hard work done by the British forces is illustrated by the fact that General Hart's column, moving about for 33 days to the north-west of Johannesburg, had marched, before the return to Krügersdorp on October 1st, a distance of 310 miles, and had been in contact with the enemy on 29 different days, with the total loss of 30 men. The captures made by the British included 96 Boers, 2720 head of cattle, 3280 sheep and goats, large quantities of mealies, potatoes, oats, bran, and hay, 90 horses, two score ponies and mules, and 67 carts and wagons.

CANADIANS FORDING A RIVER

More even than the enemy's marksmanship and trickery, the wild and broken nature of the country in which the fighting was carried on, caused the great Boer war to be one of the hardest struggles of the century. The illustration gives a good idea of the difficulties which our troops had to contend against. One of the colonial regiments which rendered such valuable service at the front is shown crossing a river at a point where there is no ford. A life-line has been carried across by a strong swimmer and firmly fixed on both banks. The men then entering the water one by one, move along the rope hand over hand until they reach firm ground on the opposite side.

W. HATHERELL, R.I.

80

CANADIANS FORDING A RIVER.

General Clements, with Colonels Broadwood and Ridley, of the Cavalry and Mounted Infantry Divisions, had been engaged in like fashion, clearing the country around Rüstenburg, westwards from Pretoria, with the capture of wagons, rifles, and ammunition. During this irregular warfare, lasting for months, the enemy, in many parts of the conquered territory, showed their usual mobility, skill, and obstinacy in severing telegraph-wires and damaging railway-line; and in occupying small towns, previously in British possession, until they were driven out by detachments sent for the purpose. The British forces, on their part, were continually capturing stock, arms, and ammunition, and in many instances burning farms whose owners, after submission, had again taken the field. On October 5th the whole number of the enemy in our hands as prisoners of war had reached 16,000. The contest was absolutely hopeless for the Boers, but numerous bands, under the irrepressible De Wet, with Delarey, Erasmus, and other leaders, roamed to and fro in the vain expectation, encouraged by monstrous falsehoods as to successes obtained, and concerning foreign intervention, of wearying out British patience, and obtaining terms involving some sort of independence.

About the middle of October, General Buller left the front, at Lydenburg, on his return to England. The hero of the Natal campaign, in taking farewell of the troops, awarded special praise to the South African Light Horse, and to Lord Strathcona's mounted corps. When he left Pretoria, an Army-order was issued in which Lord Roberts thanked him for his "great services in command of the Natal Field Force, as well as for the ability with which he carried out the operations while serving under the Field-marshal's immediate command, which resulted in the collapse of the Boers in the eastern portion of the Transvaal". On October 15th, the Commander-in-chief, reviewing the West Australian troops and the South African Light Horse, declared in his address that "he felt it an honour to review men who had rendered such extraordinary services to the empire". A few days before this event, a considerable success was achieved by that fine South African corps, Bethune's Mounted Infantry, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel E. C. Bethune, major in 16th Lancers. During Buller's advance northwards from Lady-

smith the corps suffered severely through falling into an ambuscade near Vryheid, in the south-east of the Transvaal. The officers and men had been long eager to remove the stain of that reverse. They had been appointed to garrison Vryheid, and in the week ending October 13th a Boer commando was reported to be near at hand. An ambuscade was prepared, and the Boers, falling into it, were "wiped out" to the very last man, with the loss of 60 killed, 35 wounded, and 65 prisoners. On October 17th, it was reported that General Clements had "completely cleared the Magaliesberg (a range west of Pretoria), capturing 500 cattle and 7 prisoners, and denuding the Boer stronghold of all supplies". In such desultory work, with constant petty losses to the British troops and their foes, and with continual deaths from "enteric" and other disease, consuming a battalion, at least, per month, the struggle went on for many weeks. On October 19th Mr. Krüger at last sailed for Europe, where he made a kind of "progress" through France, and thence to Holland, vainly seeking diplomatic or other intervention for a lost and ruined cause. On October 25th, with great ceremony, the Transvaal was officially proclaimed at Pretoria as part of the empire. On the same day, there was desperate fighting at Jacobsdal, in the west of Orange River Colony, where a Boer commando made a midnight attack on the garrison of Cape Town Highlanders, inflicting and sustaining heavy losses. In the last days of October, General Charles Knox, specially detailed to deal with De Wet, overtook that shifty leader at Rensburg Drift, on the Vaal River, midway between Venterskroon and Parijs, and defeated him with the loss of two guns and some wagons of stores, the British casualties being "nil". Amid the losses due to disease, the Queen had to mourn the death, from enteric fever, of her grandson, Prince Christian Victor, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., eldest son of the Princess Helena (Christian), an officer in his 34th year, of good service and great promise, who had warred with the King's Royal Rifle Corps in India, Ashanti, and the Sudan. He was serving in South Africa on the staff of Lord Roberts, and was deeply regretted, in the words of one of his comrades, as "an all-round good fellow, a good cricketer, a highly desirable acquaintance, and a capital soldier".

A War Office return, issued at the end of October, 1900, when the war had been in progress for nearly 13 months, showed that the great army under Lord Roberts' command had, during that month, suffered a reduction, through disease and in desultory fighting, of 3601 officers and men. The killed in action numbered 15 officers and 152 men; the wounded were 43 officers and 457 men. Three officers and 68 men succumbed to wounds, and 6 officers and 85 men were "missing". Disease was still claiming twice as many victims as the bullets of the Boers. Up to that time nearly 11,000 men had found their graves in South Africa, and over 1000 invalids had left the ranks unfit for further service. We may here note the various risks to which our brave troops were exposed, with some rare accidents by which life was lost or imperilled. In terrible storms a score of officers and men or more perished by lightning. One British soldier was killed by a crocodile while he was bathing in Crocodile River, near the Portuguese frontier. Another, in the same region, the extreme east of the Transvaal, became the victim of a stray lion, an animal supposed to be extinct, in a wild state, in that part of South Africa. In September, Captain W. D. Sanderson, of the 2nd Royal Warwicks, engaged, with his own and another company, and two Canadian guns, in guarding the railway-bridge over Godwaan River, about 200 miles east of Pretoria, had a narrow escape of being bitten by a poisonous snake found in his bed.

Amidst the British losses, the Boers, in the guerilla-warfare, were being gradually worn out. Horses in hundreds, and horned cattle and sheep in tens of thousands, were being captured by our troops. Hundreds of men were being lost to the Boer raiders in action and by capture. Large stores of food, forage, and ammunition were taken or destroyed. The towns, in all quarters of the two conquered countries, were being permanently occupied by British garrisons as bases of supply and warfare, and every district was being swept by small columns of our troops, directed by Lord Methuen and General Rundle; Clements, Smith-Dorrien, and French; Paget, Lyttelton, and Barton; the two Knoxes, Kitchener (brother of Lord Kitchener), and other energetic and capable men, including Colonel Plumer, already noted in this record. On November 5th there was a smart action fought with De Wet, who was in command of about 1000 Boers. Colonel Le Gallais, of the

8th Hussars, made a night-surprise of the enemy about three miles south of Bothaville, in the north-west of the Orange River Colony. A fierce five-hours' engagement ensued, shared on the British side by General Charles Knox, who had followed Le Gallais with De Lisle's Mounted Infantry. The enemy were utterly beaten, with the loss of 25 dead men and 30 wounded left on the field; the regaining of one British 12-pounder gun of "Q" Battery, one 15-pounder (14th Battery), and the capture of four Krupp guns, a pom-pom, a Maxim, all the ammunition and wagons, and 100 prisoners. The men of "U" Battery, R.H.A., under Major P. B. Taylor, served their guns in splendid style, and De Lisle ably handled the firing-line after the fall of Le Gallais, who was mortally wounded, along with Captain Engelbach of the Buffs, and Lieutenant Williams of the South Wales Borderers. Lord Roberts, in his official report, "deeply regretted the death of these three officers, all most promising", and stated that Le Gallais was "a very serious loss, a most gallant and capable cavalry-leader". This deceased officer was a hero of the Sudan campaigns of 1897 and 1898, where he assisted in the battles of the Atbara and Omdurman. During the Boer campaign he commanded City Imperial Volunteers, Colonial troops, and Mounted Infantry. About the same time, General Smith-Dorrien had two days' very hard fighting between Belfast and the Komati River. His force included 250 men of the 5th Lancers, Royal Canadian Dragoons, and Mounted Rifles; two Royal Canadian H.A. guns, four guns of the 84th Battery, and 900 Suffolks and Shropshires. The enemy were forced from a very strong position on Komati River by a wide turning-movement effected by the Suffolks and Canadians. On the next morning, November 7th, the Boers were strongly reinforced, and tried to retake the ground lost, but were foiled by the speed of the Canadians under Colonel Evans and the 84th Battery gunners, who won a two-miles' race by a neck. On the return-march the Canadian Dragoons, under Colonel Lessard, and the two Canadian guns, under Lieutenant Morrison, were of great service in protecting the British infantry and convoys.

In the latter part of November the Boer guerilla-parties were very active in the south-east of the Orange River Colony under De Wet and other commanders. De Wet was hovering round Dewetsdorp, and it soon became clear that the daring Boer leader

64.

LORD WOLSELEY

Field-Marshal Viscount Wolseley, K.P., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., D.C.L., LL.D., was born in county Dublin in 1833. Lord Wolseley is a remarkable instance in our military history of a man fairly forcing his way, without favour, by sheer courage, ability, and character, from ensign to commander-in-chief. Entering the army in 1852, he was twice wounded in the trenches before Sebastopol (1854–55), and became Major for gallant conduct in the Indian Sepoy War. In 1870 he led with brilliant success the Red River Expedition against the rebel Louis Riel. In 1874, Sir Garnet Wolseley conducted the Ashanti War, and received the thanks of Parliament, and a grant of £25,000, for the "courage, energy, and perseverance" therein displayed. In 1882, commanding the expedition to Egypt, Wolseley stormed Arabi Pasha's position at Tel-el-Kebir, winning a peerage as Baron Wolseley of Cairo and another large money-grant. Two years later, he displayed marvellous powers of organization in the Upper Nile campaign. He was now raised to a Viscountcy, and from 1890 to 1895 was commander-in-chief in Ireland. From 1895 to 1900 Lord Wolseley was commander-in-chief, resigning his post, on completing his term of service, to Earl Roberts. As an army reformer, he gave invaluable help in carrying out the Cardwell scheme for short service, furnishing ultimately the great force of reserves that rendered indispensable aid in the South African campaign.

From a Photograph by the LONDON STEREOSCOPIC COMPANY. 69

FIELD-MARSHAL SIR GARNET JOSEPH WOLSELEY
1st VISCOUNT WOLSELEY.

THE NATIONAL UNION ... ASSOCIATION
REFERENCE
20 DEC.1920
POLITICAL

was actually planning a descent on Cape Colony for recruits and supplies. As a counter-move, two battalions of the Guards—Grenadiers and 1st Coldstreams—were appointed to hold every drift on the Orange River from Aliwal North westwards to Orange River Station. In the last week of November, after some fighting in various quarters, another reverse befell the British forces in the surrender, outside Dewetsdorp, of the British garrison to De Wet. This disaster, which was soon retrieved, occurred on November 24th, when about 400 men—detachments of the Gloucestershires, Highland Light Infantry, and Irish Rifles—with two guns, were captured, after the loss of about 60 officers and men killed and wounded. A column sent to relieve the place was just too late, but on November 26th General Charles Knox joined this force, entered the town, which he found evacuated, and hotly pursued the enemy. On the following day, Colonels Barker and Pilcher overtook the Boers with mounted infantry, and drove off De Wet after a sharp action, capturing 300 horses and two wagons, and breaking up his force into three bodies. Knox then hurried on and cut off the Boer leader from the Orange River. The prisoners taken, except the few officers, were soon released by the Boers, who had no means of feeding or guarding them.

On December 1st, Lord Roberts relinquished his command, prior to embarkation for England in order to assume the post of Commander-in-chief in succession to Lord Wolseley, on his retirement after his five-years' term. The South African command fell naturally to Lord Kitchener, who was forthwith promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-general, with local rank as General. In a farewell "Order" the Field-marshal pronounced the service of the South African force to be "unique in the annals of war", as "almost incessant for a whole year, in some cases for more than a year". "There has been", he noted, "no rest, no days off to recruit, no going into winter-quarters, as in other campaigns extending over a long period. For months together in fierce heat, in biting cold, in pouring rain, you, my comrades, have marched and fought without halt, and bivouacked without shelter from the elements. You frequently have had to continue marching with your clothes in rags and your boots without soles. . . . When not engaged in actual battle, you have been continually shot at from behind kopjes by

invisible enemies, to whom every inch of the country was familiar, and who, from the peculiar nature of the country, were able to inflict severe punishment while perfectly safe themselves. You have forced your way through dense jungles, over precipitous mountains, through and over which, with infinite manual labour, you have had to drag heavy guns and ox-wagons. You have covered with almost incredible speed enormous distances, and that often on very short supplies of food. You have endured the sufferings inevitable in war to sick and wounded men far from the base, without a murmur and even with cheerfulness. You have, in fact, acted up to the highest standard of patriotism, and by your conspicuous kindness and humanity towards your enemies, your forbearance and good behaviour in the towns occupied, you have caused the army of Great Britain to be as highly respected as it must henceforth be greatly feared in South Africa. I am intensely proud of the army I have commanded, and I regard you, my gallant and devoted comrades, with affection as well as with admiration." Such was the splendid eulogy, just and eloquent, pronounced by Lord Roberts on the troops of whom he had already declared that "they bore themselves like heroes on the battle-field, and like gentlemen on all other occasions". The document here quoted is a letter addressed to the public press of the British Isles by Lord Roberts, appearing on November 5th, 1900. The statements there made are so remarkable, so wholly without precedent in the history of war—ancient, mediæval, and modern—that they deserve to be placed on permanent record in these pages. "I am very proud that I am able to record, with the most absolute truth, that the conduct of this army from first to last has been exemplary. Not one single case of serious crime has been brought to my notice—indeed, nothing that deserves the name of crime. There has been no necessity for appeals or orders to the men to behave properly. I have trusted implicitly to their own soldierly feeling and good sense, and I have not trusted in vain. . . . Most malicious falsehoods were spread abroad by the authorities in the Orange Free State and the Transvaal as to the brutality of Great Britain's soldiers, and as to the manner in which the women and children might expect to be treated. We found, on first entering towns and villages, doors closed and

shops shut up, while only English-born people were to be seen in the streets. But very shortly all this was changed. Doors were left open, shutters were taken down, and people of all nationalities moved freely about, in the full assurance that they had nothing to fear from the 'man in khaki', no matter how battered and war-stained his appearance." These words, from such a man, are a complete refutation of the calumnies of continental press-writers, and of the still fouler, because unpatriotic, falsehoods of a certain miserable section of "pro-Boers" in the British Isles, and of baffled and rebellious Afrikanders, of the worse class, in Cape Colony. We may here note that, at a general election in October, 1900, Lord Salisbury was retained in power with a majority exceeding 130 in the House of Commons, the electors thus fully endorsing the Government policy in waging the war with a determination, afterwards announced in the House of Lords by the Prime Minister, to leave "no shred of independence" to the two South African states whose troops had invaded British territory. After a visit to his son's grave near Colenso, and enthusiastic receptions in Natal and Cape Colony, Lord Roberts embarked for England at Cape Town on December 11th.

There is little need for formal eulogy of a man enshrined in the hearts of his countrymen. It is a fact that, since Lord Nelson, no British commander has been regarded by the people of the British Empire with the same degree of affectionate admiration as Lord Roberts. There are, however, some points in his conduct of the great South African campaign to which it may be well to advert. The most conspicuous quality of this illustrious Christian hero and soldier, as he was seen in the Boer War, was his superb self-control. His quiescence under petty reverses and disasters, in this quarter and that of the vast field of operations—ill-successes inevitable from the nature of the scene of warfare, the cunning of the foe, and the lack of experience and caution on the part of some of his subordinates—an imperturbable calm which was, at times, almost irritating to the less discerning and more impatient of his countrymen at home—was really the stern repose of a strong man who, in the gathering of supplies, the marshalling of forces at suitable points, and the devising of plans, was forging thunderbolts of war to be hurled, when the

destined hour came, with dire and destructive effect on the heads of the foe. Thus, for a month, did the great commander pause at Cape Town until, with startling suddenness, he appeared on the Modder, and, relieving Kimberley, drove off, pursued, and captured Cronje and his men. Thus did he halt at Bloemfontein until he swept onwards, in strength which could not be resisted, to the seizure of Pretoria, occupied almost without fighting, her forts deprived of their formidable guns by the enemy, who withdrew in despair. The capital was then held against all the attempts of a foe who, with pertinacious patriotism in behalf of a bad cause, hovered around in menacing and mischievous activity, cutting railways, capturing transport-trains, and seeming, at times, about to fulfil Krüger's boast of regaining the seat of his power. Then, fixed at the centre of his field of conquest, with his thoughts turned on Mafeking—whose long agony of bombardment and blockade made the faint-hearted dread a coming catastrophe for courage and skill—and on every other scene of difficulty and peril, the Field-marshal directed mobile columns to every quarter, incessantly harassing the ubiquitous foe, and, marching eastwards, with Buller and French, Ian Hamilton and Brabant, as his able instruments, he forced the foe from the line of railway into the mountains to the north, and drove some thousands of men, the last regular army in the field, to disarmament on Portuguese territory. For the vindication of right; for the suppression of odious oligarchic misrule; for the establishment of equal freedom in South Africa; our gratitude is due, under Him who raises and pulls down nations at His pleasure, to the patriotic spirit of an united empire, to the splendid courage, endurance, and discipline of British soldiers from all the chief regions under the Queen's maternal sway, and to Lord Roberts of Kandahar.

The war, as a contest for supremacy, was over, and we now notice only a few more incidents of the irregular struggle. On November 26th, the troops under General Paget came in contact with Boer forces under Commandants Erasmus and Viljoen. After three days' fighting the enemy, estimated at 2500 men, with five guns, two pom-poms, and one Maxim, fell back on their main position at Rhenoster Kop, about 40 miles east of Pretoria, and 18 miles north of the railway. They were attacked, on November

29th, by the British leader, and made a stubborn resistance. A fierce battle, extending over a front of seven miles, was soon in progress, with a terrific fire. The Boers made a daring attempt to turn the British left flank, held by New Zealand Mounted Rifles, under Major Cradock, and came on in short rushes with halts to take cover and pour in volleys. The enemy made some headway down the kopje, but the New Zealanders held their ground bravely, and drove back the assailants with loss. General Paget retorted with a counter-effort to turn the Boer left, the Munster Fusiliers and the West Riding Regiment taking a chief part in the movement, twice endeavouring to close with the bayonet, but retiring under the enemy's severe fire. Late in the afternoon, success came when the New Zealanders, with the utmost gallantry, rushed the Boer positions, and drove them away as darkness fell. Next morning the enemy attacked Lyttelton's Brigade, and were severely handled, their loss in the fighting throughout reaching 80 killed and a much greater number wounded and taken. The British loss was severe in officers. Lieut.-col. Lloyd, of the West Ridings, was killed, and four officers of the same battalion were wounded. Lieut. Challis, of the Royal Army Medical Corps, was severely wounded while he tended disabled men under heavy fire. The conspicuous courage of the New Zealand Mounted Rifles caused the disablement of five officers among six—Captain Crawshaw, Surgeon-Captain Godfray, and Lieuts. Montgomerie, Somerville, and Tucker. The British loss further comprised 13 men killed, and 59 non-coms. and privates wounded.

We return to General Charles Knox and his antagonist De Wet, in the south-east of the Orange River Colony, and find the Boer leader hard pressed. On December 2nd, a hostile body, with a large convoy, was headed off and driven north-eastwards near the Bethulie-Smithfield road, with the loss of seven prisoners. On December 5th, De Wet crossed the Caledon River, making for Odendaal Drift, on the Orange, being followed by Knox with four columns. The Boer commander, finding the Orange River in flood, and every drift held in force by British troops, turned off to the north-east, towards the Caledon, and was hotly pursued by mounted men, including Strathcona's Horse, and several guns. A Krupp 9-pounder gun was taken, with many thousand rounds of

rifle-ammunition, a quantity of dynamite, and 20 rifles. Five hundred abandoned horses were picked up by the British pursuers, and 300 dead and dying Boer horses were counted between Smithfield Road and the Orange River. In spite of all efforts, De Wet finally made his escape across the Caledon by hurrying to a point north-east of the line of pursuit. On December 13th there was severe fighting in the Magaliesberg range, west of Pretoria. General Clements' force was attacked at dawn by superior numbers of Boers under Delarey. A body of 2000 men assailed a hill held by the Northumberland Fusiliers and some Yeomanry, while the British leader's camp was attacked, at the same time, by about 1000 men. The Fusiliers made a brave defence until the exhaustion of ammunition compelled the surrender of nearly 20 officers and some hundreds of men, most of whom were soon released by their captors. This unfortunate affair caused the death in action of Lieut.-col. Legge, of the 20th Hussars, and 3 other officers and 9 men, with the wounding of 6 officers and 45 men. General Clements made an orderly retreat, saving all his guns, ammunition, and stores. Within a few days, Clements, aided by General French, drove the enemy in rout from the Magaliesberg district by a series of vigorous attacks.

Before the end of the year 1900, a new phase of the wearisome contest came in the invasion of Cape Colony at several points, across the Orange River, and over the western boundary of the Orange River Colony, by roving parties of the foe. Martial law was proclaimed throughout Cape Colony, and prompt military measures prevented any rising of disaffected Dutchmen, and confined the proceedings of the invaders to acts of mere brigandage in various quarters of the vast territory. The guerilla-warfare maintained by the enemy in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony caused Lord Kitchener to adopt new methods. His garrisons were withdrawn from towns and villages lying at a distance from the railway-lines, and so needing supply by means of convoys liable to attack by roving bands. His force was concentrated at important centres and on the lines of communication by railway and telegraph, while he applied to the home-government and the colonial authorities in South Africa for aid in reinforcements of mounted men, the only kind of force fitted to cope with the ever-shifting foe. In the south-western Transvaal, Lichtenburg,

Ventersdorp, and Zeerust were strongly held by well-provisioned garrisons, giving a firm possession of that part of the country. On December 29th, a fresh mishap came in the capture of the post of Helvetia, between the Delagoa Railway and Lydenburg, where 200 men of the Liverpool Regiment became prisoners, after fighting in which 50 men had fallen, killed and wounded. Sharp fighting took place at this time in many parts, with variations of success for Britons and Boers.

We now furnish a statement of the casualties in the South African forces up to the end of December, 1900, the close of the nineteenth century. The total losses of officers and men who had died in action, or of wounds and disease, or had been disabled for life, numbered 13,975. This was composed as follows:—324 officers and 3216 men, 3540 in all, had been killed on the field. There had died of wounds 97 officers and 1035 men, a total of 1132. Four officers and 92 men died in captivity. Disease carried off 174 officers and 7011 men, or 7185 in all. Accidental deaths removed 5 officers and 200 men. Those who died on the voyage home or after return, from disease or wounds, were 4 officers and 243 men. There were discharged from the service as unfit 1570 men. The total losses were thus made up of 608 officers and 13,367 non-commissioned officers and men. In addition to the above, there were, on December 31st, 1900, 1132 officers and 13,416 men still suffering from wounds, a total of 14,548. At the same date, the "missing and prisoners" included 7 officers and 898 non-coms. and men, of whom a large number afterwards rejoined. The total number of prisoners and missing had been 304 officers and 8042 non-coms. and men, of whom 293 officers and 7052 non-coms. and men had been released or had escaped. The great number of 1638 officers and 36,986 non-coms. and men had been sent home as invalids, many thousands, the great majority, of whom recovered and returned to duty either at home or at the front.

This record, professedly dealing with the British Empire as it grew and flourished up to the end of the nineteenth century, passes into the earliest days of the twentieth century in order to bring the history of events up to the close of the reign of the illustrious lady with whose name the last six decades, and more, of the nineteenth will be ever associated in history. On

January 3rd, 1901, Lord Roberts reached Southampton from the front to assume his duties as Commander-in-chief, and was heartily greeted by his countrymen and by the Queen, who conferred on him the well-won honours of an earldom (the first peerage of that class bestowed during the reign for military or naval services) and of a Knighthood of the Garter. In regard to the war, some thousands of fresh fighters were enrolled in Cape Colony and in Australia and New Zealand, in response to Lord Kitchener's request for more men. The invaders of Cape Colony found themselves met at all points of possible advance towards Cape Town, and, in spite of aid received from Dutch farmers, they constantly evaded conflict with British forces, and roamed about as mere brigands, raiding for supplies of food, horses, and ammunition. In the Transvaal, there was some heavy fighting when the Boers, on the night of January 7th, under cover of a dense fog, made simultaneous and determined attacks on the railway east of Pretoria, at Belfast, Nooitgedacht, Wildfontein, and Pan. The enemy crept close up to the British positions, but they were everywhere repulsed with heavy loss, the casualties of the defending force reaching 1 officer and 20 men killed, and 3 officers and 59 men wounded. Two days later, the foe were beaten in their attack on Machadodorp, in the same region. In nearly every case, at this time, in all parts of the vast scene of action, Boer assailants were beaten off, but it was clear that, in order to hunt the enemy down to extinction as a fighting force, Lord Kitchener must be supplied with large reinforcements of mounted men. The War Office in London accordingly called for a new enlistment of 5000 Imperial Yeomanry, and a hearty response was speedily made to this new appeal to British patriotism. On January 17th, 1901, Colonel Grey, with a body of New Zealanders and Bushmen, vigorously attacked the enemy eight miles west of Ventersburg (to south of Kroonstad, in Orange River Colony), completely routing about 800 Boers, with the loss to his force of one man wounded, and on the same day, Colonel Colville's mobile column severely repulsed an attack made north of Standerton, on the Transvaal-Natal railway. The soldiers of the Queen in South Africa were about to receive a blow, indirectly dealt by the foe, which would incite them to still higher efforts, if such were possible for men

QUEEN VICTORIA

Queen Victoria, one of the greatest, and certainly the most widely beloved and honoured of British sovereigns, ruled for the long period of sixty-three years and seven months. Her Jubilee was celebrated in 1887 with great and universal rejoicings, which, however, paled before the unparalleled enthusiasm displayed on the occasion of her Diamond Jubilee in 1897. The last year of her reign (1900) was made famous by an event big with promise for the future of the Empire, namely, the federation of the Australian colonies.

From a Photograph by BASSANO, London.

QUEEN VICTORIA.

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so brave and devoted, for the subjugation of the Boers yet in the field. On January 23rd, the telegraph-wires made known throughout South Africa the intelligence of the death of Victoria, Queen and Empress.

The health and strength of the aged sovereign had, unknown to all save her medical attendant, Sir James Reid, and to some members of her household, been declining during the later months of the last year, 1900, of the nineteenth century. Her rare constitutional vigour had been overtaxed by the devotion to the public weal which took her to Ireland in the spring of that year, and caused her to visit on many occasions sick and wounded soldiers from the front, and to give reception to bodies of Colonials returning from the scene of warfare. Above all, the Queen, a fervent lover of peace, had been sorely tried by the outbreak of war due to the unprovoked invasion of her territories in South Africa. The military disasters which occurred soon after the commencement of hostilities, and the grievous loss of troops in action and from wounds and disease, had caused keen suffering to the gracious lady who, in her deep sympathy with all in trouble, had been for so many years as a mother to countless millions of her own and other races. Queen Victoria was, in truth, as much a victim of the unscrupulous ambition of Krüger and Steyn as any of those who, for her and for the empire, had fallen on the field of battle. She, a soldier's daughter, as she loved to style herself, thus died fighting for her subjects, laying down her life, as she had spent it, since the day of her accession, without stint on behalf of those whom she ruled. The end of her long reign came with startling suddenness upon the empire and the world. On Thursday, January 17th, 1901, the public press announced that the Queen was in need of rest. On the following day it was known that the illness was serious. On Saturday, January 19th, the nation felt real alarm. On Sunday and Monday, with slight revivals of strength affording a faint hope, the august sufferer fell into a condition beyond chance of recovery, and at half-past six on the evening of Tuesday, January 22nd, Queen Victoria calmly died in presence of many of her nearest and dearest relatives, including her eldest grandson, the Emperor William of Germany, who, with a zealous affection which greatly moved the British

people, had hurried over from Berlin on the first news of real danger, in the midst of festivities celebrating the two hundredth anniversary of the foundation of the Prussian monarchy. It is needless to dwell on the universal sorrow caused by the event, which occurred at Osborne House, in the Isle of Wight, and brought to the throne the Prince of Wales, reigning as King Edward the Seventh. Amid the deep grief caused to Queen Victoria's subjects, there were two reasons for special regret in connection with the time of her decease. The first was that she had not lived to close her reign in peace; the second, that she was not spared to see the millenary celebration of the death of her great lineal ancestor, King Alfred, the sovereign whom, in her devotion to duty, she most resembled of all the long line of British rulers. She passed into history with a renown as high and as pure as was ever attained, in all ages of the world, by the best and greatest of those on whom the Divine will has laid the heavy burden of sovereignty.

Leaving to some future date the record of the assured close of the guerilla war in the complete mastery of Great Britain in South Africa, we conclude with a brief summary of events which, in the early months of 1901, went far to break down the remnant of resisting power in the scattered Boer forces, and clearly proved the hopeless and helpless position of our opponents in Cape Colony, the Orange River Colony, and the Transvaal.

In the first days of February, Lord Kitchener caused eight columns to take the field in a great combined movement for the clearance of the south-eastern Transvaal, the region lying between the railway-lines from Pretoria to Komati Poort and from Johannesburg to Natal. Under the able direction of Generals French, Smith-Dorrien, Campbell, Alderson, Knox, and Dartnell, Colonel Colville, and Major Allenby, these operations were crowned with signal success. The British forces engaged were about 15,000 men, well-mounted and furnished with ample artillery. Day by day, the Boers under Louis Botha, supposed to number 8000 fighters, were steadily forced back towards the east, the British advance covering more than 100 miles of ground from north to south, always beating the foe in fight, and constantly capturing wagons, cattle, stores, and ammunition. On February 6th Ermelo was occupied, and on the same day Smith-Dorrien's

column severely defeated 2000 Boers, under Botha in person, at Bothwell, about 20 miles east of Carolina. The movements of the British were much hampered by summer rains of unusual severity, delaying the convoys, and compelling our troops for some time to subsist on food obtained by wide-spread forays through the country. In the last week of February, Piet Retief and Amsterdam, in the far east, on the borders of Swaziland, had been occupied, and General French reported, from the former place, that the enemy, to the number of about 5000, were retreating in scattered, disorganized parties. The effective result of the British operations in this part of the scene of warfare, as reported by Lord Kitchener on March 7th, was a Boer loss, in killed, wounded, and captured, of nearly 1500 men, with the seizure of 11 guns, 784 rifles, 205,000 rounds of small-arm ammunition, over 4000 horses, 5520 "trek" oxen, over 34,000 cattle, 182,000 sheep, and about 1600 carts and wagons. Louis Botha and his men were driven away to the north, and the British forces, continuing their advance south-eastwards, reached Wakkerstroom, Utrecht, and Vryheid, near to the Natal border.

General Botha, the chief Boer leader, after negotiations with Lord Kitchener, rejected very favourable terms of peace which were offered on condition of a general surrender, and the wanton, useless struggle was continued by the enemy in guerilla fashion, as if to weary their opponents into granting some kind of independent status to the conquered territories as republics re-established under British control. The British Government, backed by the vast majority of the nation, and by renewed recruiting in the Australasian colonies, dispelled this dream by the despatch to South Africa, in the course of February and March, 1901, in response to Lord Kitchener's urgent appeal, of about 35,000 mounted men—yeomanry, mounted infantry of line-battalions, cavalry, and volunteers, including many hundreds of mounted fighters from Australasia.

While the above operations were in progress, the daring De Wet and other leaders had invaded Cape Colony with forces numbering some thousands of men, for the purpose of obtaining supplies of food and "remounts", and with a vain hope of stirring the disloyal to a general insurrection. The regular British forces and the armed loyalist bands were far too strong and active for

any such movement to have a chance of success, and little support was, in fact, accorded to the invaders, most of whom roamed about in scattered bands of mere robbers, continually beaten and hustled to and fro by British columns The enterprise, so far as De Wet, accompanied by Mr. Steyn, was concerned, ended in speedy and total failure. The Boer force, about 3000 men, with one gun and one pom-pom, having crossed the Orange River at Zand Drift, to the west of Norval's Pont, were repulsed in an attack on Philipstown on February 14th, and defeated on the following day, near De Aar, and driven off with the loss of many men killed, wounded, and taken, and with our capture of about 100 carts and wagons and a large amount of ammunition. Closely pursued by columns under Colonels Plumer, Owen, Crabbe, and other leaders, De Wet and Steyn narrowly escaped capture before they could recross the Orange, greatly swollen by rains. In further fighting, the enemy's guns were taken, with more prisoners and carts, and on February 28th, the Boer leader made for the north in utter rout, his force completely broken up, and 500 men and all ammunition taken. More than 4000 horses were also captured by our troops.

On February 2nd, Lord Methuen started on a brilliant march from Taungs to Klerksdorp, clearing the country on his advance, defeating many parties of Boers, capturing many hundreds of cattle and sheep at Brakpan, and destroying large quantities of grain. In the Orange River Colony, east of Bloemfontein, British columns were engaged, in February and March, in sweeping the country of supplies, driving off enormous numbers of cattle, sheep, and horses, capturing grain, and receiving the surrender of some hundreds of Boers. One of the finest minor successes of the war was gained, on March 23rd and 24th, by General Babington, who utterly defeated the Boer leader Delarey near Ventersdorp, in the western Transvaal. In an engagement over many miles of ground, and in a pursuit wherein brilliant work was done by Grey's New Zealanders and Bushmen, the British leader, with a loss to his own force of 2 men killed and 7 wounded, defeated 1500 Boers with heavy loss in slain and disabled men, and captured 140 prisoners, 2 15-pounder guns, 1 "pom-pom", 6 Maxims, 160 rifles, many thousand rounds of ammunition, and 77 carts and wagons.

At the beginning of April, 1901, a long and arduous task was, in spite of the signs of Boer exhaustion above referred to, confronting Lord Kitchener and his officers and men. During yet thirteen months of obstinate resistance to subjugation, some of the most skilful, mobile, and crafty fighters in irregular warfare that were ever known were to display their qualities over a vast area peculiarly suited, in many districts, to their methods of warfare. Stores of food and ammunition were still at their command, with ample supplies of "remounts", and they were also aided by spies in all quarters and by information as to British movements supplied by the non-combatant Boers or by Kaffirs forced to reveal their knowledge under pain of the cruel "sjambok" or of a rifle-bullet for refusal or treachery. Countless points of attack were open to the Boer guerillas on the long British lines of railroad, or on convoys in districts far removed from those communications. The work undertaken by the British commander was thus one of extreme difficulty. He brought to bear thereon a degree of resolution, energy, patience, and skill which ultimately won complete success for the British arms. We shall have to record some painful disasters and reverses for bodies of British troops, as incidents sometimes due to lack of caution in commanding officers. On the whole, the British general was well supported by his subordinate officers, and throughout the long campaign the rank and file displayed endurance, discipline, and skill in adapting themselves to new conditions, which have never been surpassed in the history of war. Before entering on a brief record of the operations, it may be well to describe the special methods adopted for dealing with the scattered and elusive bodies of the enemy, ever on the move, never standing long to fight against superior forces, breaking up into smaller parties, to reunite at some distant point, and suddenly assail unwary and inferior bodies of British troops, or convoys extending over miles of ground.

In order to reduce the numbers of the enemy by death or disablement in action, or by forced surrender, and to exhaust the Boer supplies of food and warlike stores, Lord Kitchener organized and despatched into all parts of the vast area of warfare successive series of lightly-equipped columns of mounted men, carrying, for brief expeditions, their own provisions and ammunition, or attended, as moving bases of supply, by well-guarded convoys. The object

and effect of such movements were to give the enemy no rest from attacks in which their laagers were surprised, and large captures of men, arms, ammunition, wagons, Cape-carts, transport animals, and food in corn and cattle, were made. The work of the British columns was of the most harassing and arduous kind. In pitiless rain, or perplexing fog, our officers and men rode weary miles across the veld, shot at by long-range "snipers", amid rocks and pitfalls in the shape of ant-bear holes, where they trusted, for safety to neck and limbs, solely to the horse. Over swollen streams, approached by banks of difficult descent into waist-deep water full of mud-holes, and strewn with rocks, they made their way, to ride ahead for more miles over boggy bottom-lands or stone-strewn kopjes, smitten at times by storms that slew men by lightning and drenched the whole command to the skin. Now and again, the whole march was made almost vain through warning given to Boer commandos by their wary scouts. In the worst case, however, stragglers of the foe would be caught at farms or picked up in "kloofs", and some prize of wagons, Cape-carts, oxen, horses, and donkeys was made. The due reward of these expeditions was gained when an unwarned Boer laager was fairly reached and "rushed" by the British troops. Then, when the "quarry" was in full view or known to be close at hand for the long lines of horsemen, after their hand-gallop over miles of hill and dale, a final charge to close quarters, with British guns and "pom-poms" dispersing the fighters to right and left, gave possession of wagons and carts in scores, horses and cattle by hundreds, and sheep in thousands, with at least some dozen or more of captured men.

In order to deprive the combatant Boers of aid from their countrymen, the whole rural population of non-fighters was, by degrees, cleared off the territory into great concentration-camps, where men, women, and children were guarded and cared for at our expense, and the young people were educated by teachers imported for the purpose, or obtained within the colonial area of South Africa. Month by month, as the Boer region was swept clear of supplies of food, apart from secret stores at the enemy's disposal, an ever-increasing pressure was brought to bear, and the conditions of life were made harder for the foe in all parts of the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony.

It was by his famous system of "block-houses" that the British commander, most resourceful of men, most effectively strangled Boer resistance. In the first place, the railway-lines used for the conveyance of our large supplies of food and stores were secured, in their whole length, by the erection of block-houses placed at distances from half a mile to a mile apart, with a special eye to bridges and culverts. These little forts were low, circular buildings of 12 feet diameter, made of corrugated iron sent out in framework ready to be jointed together. The space between the double walls was then filled in with material like road-metal, and the structure was thus made bullet-proof, save for narrow loopholes at intervals. The bolted roof was then set on, and the structure encircled by a trench and a 3-feet wall or breastwork about 30 feet in diameter. Around the whole defence ran a raised double fence of stout, intricate, barbed-wire entanglement. Between the block-houses, forming a continuous wall, ran a very strong double fence of barbed wire, a formidable entanglement of thirty-two interlaced strands. The value of such a line of forts for guarding the lines and hemming in wandering bodies of the enemy who might seek to cross into other districts is obvious. Each building was garrisoned by about a dozen men, furnished with supplies by train, and aided against attacks in force by armoured trains with light guns, including Maxims and "pom-poms", ever on the move or reached by signal. The wire-fences along the lines were hung with little bells to give warning of attempts to cross in darkness, and provided with spring-guns exploded by efforts to cut the wires. In many cases, the British garrisons kept dogs as sentinels, using the animals, when all was quiet in the neighbourhood, for hunting hares and other veld-game. So effective was this system—a masterpiece of inventive genius in warfare against guerillas—that, before the end of 1901, the country for a hundred miles radius round Johannesburg, the centre of the chief gold-field, was practically clear. Before the close of the war, about five thousand block-houses were occupied by 60,000 infantry, doing their needful work in smaller numbers than before, and more effectively, with far less exposure and fatigue. At all the more important points and railway-stations there were small entrenched camps, solid links to bind the chain of forts, which were all connected by telephone. The more adventurous Boers who tried to cross the lines

with wagons or cattle, or to capture block-houses, quickly found the work to be dangerous, deadly, and futile, and it was only on the darkest nights, and always with great risk, that attempts to get over could succeed. The armoured trains were, moreover, furnished with search-lights flooding the veld with radiance in case of need. As regards the safety of our railway-lines, we may here state that whereas, in October, 1900, the railways were, at different points, cut thirty-two times, the number of interruptions was reduced, in May, 1901, to twelve; in September of the same year, to two, and, in the following month, to none.

The first lines of block-houses, running north and south, divided the country into three long strips—that on the west of the western or Rhodesian line, that between the two lines of railway, and that lying to the east of the Pretoria line. From these two great north-and-south trunk-lines, block-houses were erected east and west, with the result that the Boers, who could previously lead their British pursuers a chase over territory 1200 miles by 500, had their hunting-grounds divided into seven or eight squares comparatively small, in which it was possible for numerous small columns to operate with safety against them. Before the close of 1901, nearly 15,000 square miles of the Transvaal and 17,000 square miles of the Orange River Colony had been so shut in that, within those areas, the Boers, in Lord Kitchener's words, "could not exist". As the country was cleared by our mobile columns, it was occupied by a net-work of posts manned by the South African Constabulary, a picked body of 10,000 men under Baden-Powell. Further advantages of this admirable system were that greater facility was given for obtaining accurate information as to the locality of Boer bands; depôts of supplies and remounts could be formed at such distances that columns did not need always to return to their base to refit; and that every British commander had a definite line against which to drive his foe to a point where he must either fight or surrender. The British mounted force, so slow and cumbersome in the early days of the campaign, by degrees learnt its lesson well, and became a magnificent body of fighters and pursuers, rid of antiquated methods, and inspiring the Boers in the field with a dread and disgust which did much to hasten the final inevitable submission. Such were the chief methods employed by the great organizer, the

British Moltke, the indefatigable man who, all round his working-room at Pretoria, the centre of the spider's web for catching Boers, had maps with little flags marking the position of each column, and of the Boer commandos, and altered in place day by day as news was flashed along the wires.

Before proceeding to deal with events, not in strict order of time, but in different regions of the spacious scene of warfare, we note some effects of Lord Kitchener's work and that of his officers and men, as detailed in some of his weekly reports. On August 19th, 1901:—"Since Aug. 12 columns report 64 Boers killed, 20 wounded, 248 prisoners, 95 surrenders; also 267 rifles, 13,700 rounds small-arms ammunition, 127 wagons, 940 horses, 4700 cattle and other stock captured". A week later, we read of "32 Boers killed, 24 wounded, 139 prisoners, 185 surrenders; 116 rifles, 19,010 rounds small-arms ammunition, 245 wagons, 286 horses, 6615 cattle". A week later, the account is "19 Boers killed, 3 wounded, 212 prisoners, 127 surrenders, 194 rifles, 27,560 rounds small-arms ammunition, 144 wagons, 1700 horses, 7500 cattle, and various other stock". Within the next week, the results were "67 Boers killed, 67 wounded, 384 prisoners, 163 surrenders; also 179 rifles, 65,211 small-arms ammunition, 371 wagons, 3400 horses, 19,000 cattle, and various other stock". If these reports be multiplied by fifty, we arrive at an understanding of Boer exhaustion in men and supplies and of the issue of unrelenting pressure in compulsory surrender. The magnitude of our task may be estimated by the fact that, in November, 1901, there were still in the field no fewer than seventy recognized commandos and bands of Boers, ranging in numbers from 50 to 400. Of these 26 were in the Transvaal, 31 in Orange River Colony, 13 in Cape Colony. Lord Kitchener's report for March 3rd, 1902, as the end of the struggle drew near, gives "69 Boers killed, 15 wounded, 903 prisoners, 105 surrenders; also 1034 rifles, 47,000 rounds small-arms ammunition, over 3000 horses, and other stock".

In north-eastern Transvaal, in the first weeks of April, important work was done by Colonel Plumer, one of the most successful leaders in the long campaign. Setting out with his mounted column from Pretoria for the north on March 28th, 1901, along the railway track, with two infantry battalions, the Gordons and Northamptons,

to maintain communications, holding strategic points and guarding bridges, Plumer advanced in command of about 2000 men, chiefly Australians and New Zealanders, attended by a field-battery and several "pom-poms". Three construction-trains, with artificers for repairing damages to bridges and culverts effected by the enemy, were escorted by an armoured train carrying a "pom-pom" and a Colt machine-gun. The Boers, in just dread of the Colonials and Bushmen, kept their distance, and Plumer's total of killed and wounded, on the march to Pietersburg, about 160 miles north-east of Pretoria, was only seven, hit at long range. Positions where a few brave men could have stopped an army, were abandoned by the enemy, and several hundred Boers surrendered on the march up. Passing by the village-spa called Warm Baths, with scalding-hot medicinal springs, and the little town of Nylstroom, where pretty gardens show tropical vegetation—bananas, orange-trees, and loquats—and onwards through Piet Potgieter's Rust, Plumer's advance-scouts, on April 8th, rode into Pietersburg, the northern end of the central railway. Capture was made of abundant forage, many cannon, over 250,000 rounds of small-arms ammunition, a small Krupp field-piece, two limbers and some shells of the Boer 4.7 howitzer, and a small arsenal, comprising a shell-foundry, a wagon-factory, dynamite-works, and a repairing-shop for small-arms. Two peace-envoys (Boers), Mr. Cooper and General Schoemann, both condemned to death by the enemy, were rescued, and from a damp cell in the local jail there were taken out three Yorkshire Yeomen, one of whom was almost a wreck from rheumatism. The occupation of Pietersburg, the last point of strategical importance in the scene of conflict, was a great moral as well as military blow to the Boer cause, and the advance thus made upon the Zoutpansberg mountainous district, long vaunted as "an impregnable stronghold", was a great stride towards the end of the struggle. On April 14th, Plumer's column took the field again from Pietersburg, riding south-eastwards to hold the line of Olifants River, while Gen. Walter Kitchener from Lydenburg, far away south-east, and Sir Bindon Blood, an officer from India of well-won fame in the Chitral campaign, and other commanders, moved northwards to sweep the country. Meeting slight resistance, even at the strongest points, and traversing districts with a large native population growing maize (mealies)

and Kaffir-corn on the hillsides, and receiving the surrender of many Boer burghers, the force reached Olifants River, 50 miles away, detaching a party of Imperial Bushmen, under Major Vialls, about 30 miles west, to guard Commissie Drift, on Elands River, and other points. Kitchener and the other commanders were meanwhile sweeping the country, with frequent captures and surrenders. Major Vialls, actively engaged around his post, was taking many cattle and prisoners, with large quantities of small-arms ammunition, rifles, wagons, and beasts of transport. Major Colenbrander, with a body of the admirable men known as Kitchener's Fighting Scouts, was rendering similar service around Pietersburg. Early in May, Major Vialls, having been joined by Plumer and many of his riders, was sweeping in large numbers of prisoners and cattle, and the whole force turned southwards for Erste Fabriken, a station on the Delagoa Bay line, 11 miles east of Pretoria. The results of the whole "drive" showed over 1200 fighting Boers captured, many hundreds of refugees brought in, large numbers of wagons and carts, tens of thousands of cattle and sheep, six cannon, hundreds of rifles, and about half a million rounds of small-arms ammunition. In all, seven columns, each from 1500 to 3000 strong, had been engaged, and the little campaign had given the British a firm hold of the country up to the Limpopo, the northern boundary of the Transvaal, in the possession of the chief passes and drifts, and the occupation, by Col. Grenfell, of the town of Louis Trichart, in the heart of the Zoutpansberg, about 70 miles north of Pietersburg. Early in June, Col. Grenfell, at Pietersburg, received the surrender of the Boer leader Van Rensburg and his commando of over 100 men, and Col. Wilson, after some hot fighting, with severe loss to the enemy, captured a Boer laager, with hundreds of prisoners and thousands of cattle. We deal next with the operations in the eastern Transvaal from April, 1901, until the end of the war.

On April 28th, 1901, Col. Colville, with a mobile column, made a moonlight expedition against a laager established by Commandant Hans Botha between Standerton and Heidelberg. Moving with great rapidity, and aided at the last moment by a thick mist, the British troops got past the Boer outposts unseen and unheard, and completely surprised the enemy in rushing the position. There was sharp bayonet-work, and the Boers fled,

leaving all ammunition, transport, and supplies, with many dead, wounded and prisoners. Two days later, another Boer camp was taken by volunteers from Heidelberg. In May, a great sweeping movement under Sir Bindon Blood was steadily progressing, with the daily capture of prisoners and cattle by troops beating, as for game, in every kloof or ravine in the Carolina district. Walter Kitchener, Plumer, and other commanders were driving the enemy eastwards, with constant captures and surrenders, amid Arctic cold, on June 1st, in the mid-winter on the high veld. On June 10th, Lord Kitchener reported, as the result of all operations during May, the number of Boers killed, prisoners, and surrendered as 2640, and that from June 1st to 9th the British forces had killed 26, captured 442 prisoners, 651 rifles, 115,550 rounds of ammunition, 120 wagons, and 4000 horses. At this time, a severe reverse befell a body of about 260 Victorian Mounted Rifles, detached from General Beatson's column. On June 12th, they were surprised in their camp about 20 miles south of Middelburg, and to the east of Brugspruit, a station on the Pretoria-Delagoa line. A large Boer force, under Ben Viljoen, crept up in the darkness soon after 8 p.m., and at 50 yards' range poured in a deadly fire killing 2 officers, and 16 men, wounding 4 officers and 38 men, and slaying over 180 of the struggling horses in the lines. Our soldiers were shot down as they ran to their rifles at the piles of stacked arms. Only 2 officers and 50 men escaped to General Beatson's camp; the remainder were taken prisoners and released; two "pom-poms" were also lost. On the night of June 27th there came, near Brugspruit, the very rare, if not unique, occurrence of the capture of a block-house. Four men of the little garrison had slipped away to reply to sniping-fire, and were cut off on their return by Boers, who also fired down from a low wall on to the unprotected block-house roof. The structure was wrecked, but help speedily arrived, and the enemy were driven off with severe loss. In the case of the Victorians, the disaster was caused by a lack of due vigilance against a foe unsurpassed for skill in finding out weak points in an opponent's armour.

Early in July, the eastern part of the Transvaal was being swept by columns under Sir Bindon Blood, Babington, Campbell, Walter Kitchener, Colville, and Garnett. The tactics of the Boers, here under Botha and Viljoen, were those of slipping back

between the columns during the nights, and firing the veld-grass and bush in all directions in order to cover their movements by a veil of smoke. Many prisoners and cattle were taken, and a large number of women and children brought into the concentration-camps. By July 7th, General Blood's column was back at Middelburg, on the railway, after clearing the country between Amsterdam and Bethel. At the end of the month, Gen. W. Kitchener, operating north of Middelburg against Ben Viljoen, captured, by the 18th and 19th Hussars, a pom-pom, twenty wagons, and some prisoners, in a dense bush-country, the British troops in one case driving off the foe by a charge with bayonets. Another pom-pom was blown up by the enemy, the two weapons being those taken, two months previously, from the Victorian contingent. We deal next with an adventurous move of Louis Botha, who seems to have intended an invasion of Cape Colony by a dash in considerable force through Natal.

Early in September, that able commander, with a large body of riders, made his way into the extreme south-east of the Transvaal, on the north-eastern frontier of Natal. Great forces were detached by Lord Kitchener, and a severe disaster, on Sept. 17th, befell one of the British columns. A body of 300 Mounted Infantry—chiefly Irish Fusiliers, Dorsets, and Rifle Brigade—under Major Gough, with two 15-pounder field-guns and a Colt machine-gun, was entrapped near De Jaager's Drift, on the Buffalo River, to the north-east of Dundee, in Natal. The scene of action was Blood River Poort, an opening in the hills. The British, suddenly assailed in great force on the front and right flank, were, in a quarter of an hour, killed, wounded, or captured, the loss in slain reaching two officers and 14 men, with four officers and about 25 men wounded. The gunners stood by their weapons to the last, destroying the sights and breech-blocks before they were taken. The captured British soldiers were released, as usual, by the enemy, long destitute of means to feed prisoners; Major Gough, and an officer of the Fusiliers, escaped in the night. Prompt measures were taken by Lord Kitchener, and in a week or two about 40,000 British troops were collected on the Natal frontier. The Boer general was quickly in retreat, and suffered in his turn severe reverses. On Sept. 26th, in great force, Botha attacked the British garrison of Fort Itala, in Zulu-

land, with remarkable suddenness and skill. The defenders, outnumbered nearly ten to one, fought with the greatest gallantry under Major Chapman, of the Dublin Fusiliers, and the Boers were beaten off with the loss of scores of men killed, including three commandants. The garrison of Fort Itala, men of the 5th Division of Mounted Infantry, were heroes who had fought at Talana Hill, or Spion Kop, or Pieter's Hill, or Ladysmith. Before the attack on the fort, a British outpost of 80 men, on the top of Itala Mountain, resisted for an hour 800 Boers, and then the survivors retreated on the fort, to aid their comrades in the desperate fight of nineteen hours' duration. On Oct. 8th, Botha was attacked and driven back by Walter Kitchener to the north-east of Vryheid, and, as other columns converged on his positions, under the command of General Bruce-Hamilton, the Boers were soon in full retreat towards Piet Retief, on the Swaziland border, hotly pursued. Piet Retief was occupied, on Oct. 12th, by a British force, and the enemy withdrew, under heavy rains, into the entanglements of the Pongolo Bushland. Botha had a very narrow escape from capture in the last week of October, leaving his papers behind. Two of the guns taken from Major Gough were recovered by General W. Kitchener, and Botha's enterprise against Natal ended in total failure. His force was broken up into small parties, and the British pursuers returned with large captures of cattle.

Resuming the account of other warfare in the eastern Transvaal, we find that in December, 1901, General Bruce-Hamilton, entrusted with the operations on Walter Kitchener's return to England, was actively engaged in the rich, important district of Ermelo. The block-house lines were being extended from the railways through that region, and Louis Botha was eager to interfere with the work. Bruce-Hamilton, with columns under Colonels Rawlinson and Spens, aided by a force under Major Gough, had, as his chief of the Intelligence Department, the very able Colonel Wools-Sampson, and was at work with pernicious results to the Boers. On Dec. 3rd, the British commander, with 1500 mounted men, four 15-pounders and a pom-pom, started on a night march, along circuitous tracks, and surprised a laager on Oshoek, taking 93 prisoners, 26 wagons, and many cattle, horses, and other stock. Not a man fell in the British force

during this ably-conceived and well-executed attack. The heavy sudden fire stampeded the enemy's horses, and threw the Boers into confusion. The captures included many civil officials. Lord Kitchener's weekly report of Dec. 9th contained the significant words: "I am now able, for the first time, to carry out systematic and continuous operations in the vicinity of Ermelo, Bethel, and Carolina". He attributed this fact to the extension of the system of block-houses from Brugspruit, on the Pretoria-Delagoa line, to Greylingstadt, on the railway from Pretoria to Natal.

On Dec. 10th, when Lord Kitchener had himself taken the field to direct the operations, Bruce-Hamilton's forces had a brilliant success in an attack on the Bethel commando in laager at Trichardsfontein. A body of Mounted Infantry, a composite regiment (Roberts' and Kitchener's Horse), the Johannesburg Mounted Rifles, and Australian troops, under Col. Rawlinson and other officers, swept down on the enemy under Piet Grobelaar and took 131 prisoners, with Cape-carts, wagons, horses, rifles, and ammunition, and about 5000 oxen. One British officer was killed and a few men were wounded. Three days later, the same force under Bruce-Hamilton surprised Piet Viljoen's laager at dawn, killing, wounding, and capturing over 100 men, with many cattle. After a well-earned rest, the same splendid troops, between Dec. 29th and January 3rd, scouring the country to the east of Ermelo, captured Commandant Erasmus and nearly 100 men, including surrenders, with many vehicles, 800 cattle, and as many sheep. The loss sustained by the victors was very trifling. The effect of British energy and success in this region is shown by the statement of a newspaper correspondent:—"Thanks to the ever-extending block-house line, I have again ridden twice along the Standerton-Ermelo fencing in safety". The same writer describes the moral effect produced in these words,—"So much do the enemy fear the Bruce-Hamilton and Wools-Sampson combination that no wild Boer will, if he can help it, sleep within thirty-five miles of their camp". The energy of the leader and his intelligence-officer was marvellous. Working as if naught had been already achieved, on Jan. 11th, the British forces fell at dawn on a laager at Boschman's Kraal, 20 miles N.W. of Ermelo, and captured 42 prisoners, including Commandant Wolmarans and two other Staats Artillery officers.

Six days later, in a downpour of continuous rain with mist, out rode Bruce-Hamilton again with 1000 mounted men and two guns against another laager, and took over a score of Boers and 800 cattle. The next move was one of over 1200 mounted men, under the two chiefs, near Carolina, in the last week of January, 1902. Over 100 prisoners were hunted down, including four officers. Before the month closed, the ablest Boer commandant, next to Botha, Delarey, and De Wet,—the Transvaaler Ben Viljoen—was taken near Lydenburg, with two of his aides-de-camp. This commander had been for twelve months in charge of the district north of the Delagoa Bay railway, and it was he who, penetrating south of the line, surprised the Victorians, and then slipped between the columns set afoot by Sir Bindon Blood. He was ever in touch with Botha in the Ermelo district, sending him reinforcements when that general made one of his concentrations. His capture could not fail to have a considerable moral effect on his countrymen. We must now turn for a brief space to the other side of the account, and record some of the reverses inflicted on the British forces by daring bands of Boers.

The first of these was of an outrageous character. On August 31st, in a cutting on the Pretoria-Pietersburg line, at a point about 2 miles north of Waterval, and not 20 miles from Pretoria, a train was blown up and derailed by two mines. On board the train were officers, men, and several civilian passengers, including two ladies, two children in arms, and a nurse. An armoured truck carried, as escort, 45 men of the West Riding Regiment, the officer in charge being Lieut.-col. Vandeleur, of the Irish Guards. At the instant of the explosion, smashing the armoured truck and injuring some of the troops, a fierce rifle-fire was poured into every part of the train from the top of the cutting, which was above the height of the open trucks. An attempt to reply was made by the few soldiers who could grip their rifles, but they were overwhelmed by the stream of bullets coming from their assailants, estimated at 100 men, under the command of a notorious train-wrecker, Jack Hindon. The ladies, at Vandeleur's order, lay down on the floor, placing the babies under the seats. One of the ladies screamed out "Don't shoot, there are women and children here", but for some minutes the bullets flew in all directions. The train was boarded by the

enemy, and Col. Vandeleur was shot dead, while one Boer ruffian deliberately fired at and wounded the nurse. The train and passengers were then rifled, officers, men, and women being robbed of money, jewellery, outer clothing, and even of their boots. A number of natives helped the Boers to cram the contents of the passengers' luggage, with even the children's clothes, into sacks, which were strapped on the led horses. When the British officers and men had removed the dead and wounded, the wreckage was set on fire by the Boers, and the terrible scene ended with the cry of a Boer "Let us kneel, and pray, and thank God", followed by the spectacle of brigands on their knees. The total casualties, including the death of Col. Vandeleur, "a very promising officer", in Lord Kitchener's words, were 10 killed and 25 wounded. A few days later, on Sept. 3, a British column overtook some of the train-wreckers and slew four in action.

Another excellent commanding officer, with many gallant comrades, became the victim of a fierce action fought near Brakenlaagte, about 20 miles north-west of Bethel, in the south-east of the Transvaal. At dawn on October 30th, 1901, Col. Benson R.A., described by Lord Kitchener as "a most gallant and capable commander, who has invariably led his column with marked success and judgment", left camp just to the north of Bethel, marching on Brugspruit, on the Pretoria-Delagoa line, east of Balmoral. Benson and his men had been very active in clearing work, smiting the enemy again and again, marching far and wide, with the capture of hundreds of prisoners, and thousands of horses and horned stock. The Boers were in dread of their swift daring, and yet resolved on an attempt at retaliation. Col. Benson's column numbered about 900 mounted men and five companies of the Buffs (500 infantry), with four 15-pounder field-guns (84th Battery), a pompom, and one or two Maxims. The riding force was made up of Mounted Infantry of the 60th Rifles, the 3rd Mounted Infantry, a body of the Scottish Horse, a mounted company of the Yorkshire Light Infantry, and a score or so of Tower Hamlets Volunteers. The day had broken in dense mist and rain, and the wind soon blew with almost hurricane force. There was a rather long and heavy convoy, carrying ten days' provisions. Sharp rifle-firing arose as Pretorius and Grobelaar, with 600 burghers, began to

harass the British force. Part of the convoy was entangled in an awkward drift or water-course when Boers appeared upon the right and front as well as the rear of the column. Col. Benson remained behind to assist whilst the convoy halted for the rear to close up. As the weather grew worse, the commander resolved to halt about 4 miles ahead, at Brakenlaagte farm. Colonel Wools-Sampson, Chief of the Intelligence Staff, went forward to select the camping-ground, take in the convoy, and assign the men and wagons to their positions. Two miles north of the drift Col. Benson halted part of his force upon a low ridge, in order to see the last of the wagons and the rear-guard come in. With him were two 15-pounders, the other guns and the pom-pom being over a mile ahead, upon higher ground. Amidst heavy rain and mist the rear-guard was now fiercely attacked, and the force was soon surrounded on all sides by bands of Boers. The Scottish Horse hurried back to the drift to disentangle the few remaining wagons and men. Col. Wools-Sampson, when nearly all the convoy had reached the camping-ground, sent back three companies of the Buffs to the aid of Col. Benson and the two guns. It was now about 9.30 a.m., and the weather for a time became a little clearer. Unknown to the British, Louis Botha in person, having ridden hard and far with 600 men to join in the attack, was now on the ground. The rain came on again, and the British troops were confused by mistaking bodies of Boers for their own men. With a sudden dash, 300 horsemen on the left, and 700 more on the right, bore down in a furious gallop on the rear-guard and the guns, firing rapidly as they came on to within a score or two yards of our men. It was a complete surprise, but the British heroes never faltered for a moment before the deadly fire of Mausers. Amid cries from the foe of "Surrender", "Hands up", Col. Benson, Col. Guinness R.A., and above a score of officers went down, half of them mortally wounded, and with them about 200 non-coms. and men, of whom 60 fell dead. Some of our men near the guns were riddled with bullets. The Boers then rode up to the guns, Pretorius and Grobelaar among them, while the remnant of our rear-guard retired on the camp. The gunners, to a man, had fallen by their weapons. Col. Wools-Sampson, at the camp, knew that some evil thing had come, and at once posted every rifleman at hand to cover his position, while every black and white non-

combatant set to work to erect defences and dig trenches. The hill above, and Brakenlaagte farm, were occupied in force, and a Maxim was posted on a hill to the east. Soon after 10 a.m. the British who had escaped from the close attack came in and took up positions, and the Boers who pursued were driven off by heavy fire. Two hours later, the enemy tried to rush the camp, but were repelled on all sides. When the gallant Benson, a man dear to many friends, well beloved by all who served under him, was carried in a dying condition to the camp, he sent for his comrade Wools-Sampson and said "Defend your camp for all it is worth. Louis Botha has stated that he will attack in the morning with 1400 men, unless you surrender". The thought of surrender was far indeed from the mind of him who now assumed command. His men turned the hill of Brakenlaagte into a fortress, and by the next morning the position was impregnable. This action, in which the British lost 86 killed and 216 wounded, with 2 guns, was a remarkable instance of Boer skill in rapid concentration for a sudden and daring attack. Practically all the commandos of the eastern Transvaal took part in the fight, including men from Pretoria, Johannesburg, Heidelberg, Carolina, Ermelo, Bethel, and Standerton. The enemy had, however, failed in their object of destroying the British force or compelling a surrender, and Louis Botha, in the hearing of the doctors and of some British prisoners, declared that he was dissatisfied with the result. Many of the enemy were left dead on the ground, and their whole casualties were nearly 200, including Commandant Opperman killed and Chris. Botha wounded.

We may here note that in November, 1901, Lord Kitchener, at his special request, received the valuable aid of Major-general Sir Ian Hamilton, Military Secretary at head-quarters, as his Chief of the Staff. This distinguished soldier has been already seen in our record at Elandslaagte and Ladysmith, being previously known in the Afghan War, on the Nile (1884), in Burma (1886), in the Chitral and Tirah campaigns, and as one of the few surviving officers of Majuba (1881), where he was severely wounded, and his life spared by the victors on that disastrous day only because he was thought to be dying from the injuries which he had received. We proceed to the narrative of further warfare in the eastern Transvaal.

In the last days of February, 1902, British columns were actively engaged in the district of Botha's Berg, north-east of Middelburg, on the Pretoria-Delagoa railway. Three bodies of mounted men, under Col. Park, Col. Williams, and Major Urmston, converged on some Boer laagers, and, attacking at dawn on Feb. 20th, captured 165 prisoners, with horses, wagons, mules, rifles, and ammunition. In further movements more prisoners were taken, with very few British casualties. A few days later, the energetic Bruce-Hamilton, with his Chief of Intelligence, Wools-Sampson, was again in the field, to clear the country to the south and east of Ermelo. The main object was to force all the marauding Boers to the east of the block-house line between Piet Retief and Wakkerstroom. About six small columns were engaged, varying in strength from 500 to 1300 men, under Gen. Spens, Cols. Allenby, Wing, Stewart, Colville, and C. Mackenzie. Starting by different routes on Feb. 26th, on a raw morning with drizzling rain, over the trackless sea of the veld, with another force, under Col. Plumer, to the west, the columns made over 20 miles eastward before encamping. The morning of Feb. 27th broke in mist and rain, and progress was made as far as half-way on the track to Wakkerstroom. On March 1st all the columns moved into that village, where supplies were obtained, and the fresh-laden convoy-wagons were again on the trek. Then again southwards the troops moved towards Vryheid, amid scenery of rugged grandeur, often under mists and rain, and so to Pivaan Bridge, by March 7th, with Louis Botha and his men ever retiring before them. Such was some of the less exciting but effective work of our columns in the tedious campaign. To the north of Pretoria, an important clearing operation of another kind had been in progress under the direction of General Barton. Attempts had been made to blow up the railway-line from Pretoria to Pietersburg, the foe being favoured by the growth of thick bush, for a long distance on the route, enabling prowlers to creep up and lay mines unobserved. The British commander in that district thereupon caused the railway-line to be completely cleared of bush for 60 miles to the width of a mile and a half on each side, whereby a vast quantity of timber and brushwood was stacked for fuel to be used in the coming winter season.

Bruce-Hamilton's forces, resuming their work after a few days'

rest, still hunting for Louis Botha, who was said to be in hiding near Smaldeel, failed to catch that redoubtable leader, but made prey of his brother-in-law, Gen. Cherry Emmett, who was captured on March 16th, 1902. Botha, at the moment, was not 50 yards away, when he heard Bruce-Hamilton talking with his prisoner, Emmett, and slipped off in scant attire. On the following day, some Johannesburg Mounted Rifles and a party of 13th Hussars captured a score of Boers, and many hundreds of excellent cattle and horses came to hand during the drive, and in the attack on Emmett's laager. The night-marches made at this time by the troops under Bruce-Hamilton were of a very remarkable character. No worse country for horses to travel can anywhere be found than the rugged highlands of the Eastern Transvaal, with pathless bergs and dells, and streams in crossing which girths are often strained and snapped, and the shoes clawed and torn from the hoofs of the steed. The hurried darts out against laagered foes were made without guns or transport of any kind, and with no aid for disabled men from stretcher-bearer or ambulance or doctor or nurse. The strain upon the endurance of officers and the hardihood and discipline of men was most severe, and was borne with courage and patience never surpassed. On March 18th, at 7 p.m., a mounted force under Allenby and Stewart left camp for another "drive", amid dense fog and rain, with tents left standing and fires kept alight by the camp-guard in order to deceive the foe. Guided by Zulus and "tame" (surrendered and friendly) Boers, the riders went over rock and veld, through swollen streams, amid whirling mists, sweeping on through the night at good speed, until they were within two miles of the Zululand border. Louis Botha was said to be hidden, with a body-guard of forty men, in that district, and the British force, to mislead any lurking Boer scouts, had ridden first several miles to the west, then southwards, and then due east. The region reached at last was one of peaks enclosing a deep basin several miles in extent, studded with long grass, bush in clumps, huge aloes, cactus and tree-ferns. In the darkness, the guides from time to time lost their way, and it was hard for our men to keep together. At some points it was needful to dismount, and scramble with the horses over rocks, and, in one place, to pass in single file, by a narrow pathway, along the side of a vast amphitheatre, with an ocean of mist floating below,

walled by a precipice of sheer rock. It would have become a perfect death-trap with a foe at hand. The guides, at this point, were quite lost, and a halt was made until daylight on the mountain beyond the dangerous place just described. Then on again the men hurried over hill and dale and across the spruits, until a Boer force was sighted, with many cattle, in a deep basin and on a hill near by. The British troops soon stormed the high ground, taking most of the cattle, and seizing the homestead called Potgieter's Farm, which had been turned into barracks, workshops, and storehouse, with a rough smithy for repairing wagons, and vats for tanning hides. After all this toilsome work, the prize was just missed. Only twenty minutes before the advanced troops reached the farm, Louis Botha, Commandant-general of the Boers, had ridden off into the mountains. A few prisoners were taken, including some Boer officials, brought in as captives at the moment when the women at the farm were blaming our men as fools who could never catch their husbands. On March 26th, Bruce-Hamilton, with the main body of his men, rode back into Vryheid. On March 30th, a grievous railway disaster, not due to the foe, but to a train running off the line on a steep gradient, occurred near Barberton. Nearly forty men of the Hampshire Regiment were killed, and forty-five of the same battalion were injured.

On April 1st a column of about 300 men, composed chiefly of the 2nd Dragoon Guards (Queen's Bays), with two guns and a pom-pom, under the command of Col. the Hon. R. T. Lawley, came upon an entrenched Boer laager in the Heidelberg district, south-east of Johannesburg. The enemy were 600 strong, and, after an engagement, the Dragoon Guards fell back fighting, with three squadron leaders disabled, including Major Walker killed, and several other officers wounded. The 7th Hussars came up in reinforcement, and charged the enemy with drawn swords, putting them to flight with the loss of many men killed, wounded, and taken. Two Boer commandants were killed, and three field-cornets. The action was long and desperate. One of the Boer commanders, Pretorius, was shot dead, on endeavouring to escape after capture, by a National Scout (Boer). The repulse of the Bays was due to detention, under a heavy fire, on the bank of an impassable spruit, the enemy being under cover of rocks on the other side of the stream and of long grass on the nearer bank.

Flanking tactics on the part of the Boers then compelled a retreat, which was effected with great difficulty in face of a foe making vigorous attempts to "rush" the British horse with shouts of "Hands up!" At daybreak the position of the Dragoons was very critical, as men were falling fast. It was known that the Hussars were on the way, and a fine rear-guard action was fought, with severe punishment to the Boers, but the Bays continued to fall fast, when the Hussars came up with the 66th Battery. The gunners opened with 15-pounder shells, and the Hussars made the charge which rescued their comrades from imminent destruction. The long contest in South Africa was, by this time, drawing to a close, and no further movements of importance occurred in the Eastern Transvaal.

In the Western Transvaal, on May 23rd, 1901, a determined attack on a British convoy between Potchefstroom and Ventersdorp was beaten off, with some loss to the British troops. Six days later, one of the most severe minor engagements of the war took place at Vlakfontein, about 60 miles north-west of Johannesburg, on the way to Rüstenburg. A British column, under Col. Dixon, about 1400 strong, composed of four companies of Derbyshires, four of the King's Own Scottish Borderers, 500 Yeomanry and Scottish Horse, the 28th Battery, and some details, was attacked on May 29th by a large body of Boers of Delarey's commandos. The British were retiring to camp when the enemy, under cover of smoke from the veld which they had fired, assailed the rear on the right, and, with a rush, captured two guns, killing most of the section in charge. The major of the battery galloped back and brought up two companies of the Derbys, but the smoke and confusion were such that these men came up to within forty yards of the Boers before finding out that the men in their front were not the Yeomanry escorting the guns. A desperate struggle at close quarters began, the British being heavily shelled from their own captured guns. The Derbyshires fought with the most heroic courage, retaking the guns at the point of the bayonet, with heavy loss to themselves, and killing nearly every Boer near the weapons. Kemp was in command of the enemy, numbering over 1400 men. The British loss was very severe, reaching about 60 killed and 120 wounded, while the Boers left 56 dead on the ground, and had large numbers of wounded removed. On June

1st Col. Williams' column arrived at Klerksdorp after a fortnight's successful march, capturing 18,000 sheep, 3000 cattle, a great number of horses, donkeys, and mules, 100 wagons, 50 carts, a score or two prisoners, and much ammunition.

Lord Methuen, an officer already seen in this record, was actively engaged in the western scene of operations almost throughout the war, inflicting on the enemy great loss in cattle, transport, and ammunition. On June 13th, 1901, he arrived at Zeerust, having marched from Jacobsdal by way of the Lead Mines. His force was continually "sniped" during his progress, and at Wilgeboom Spruit, 18 miles from his destination, a fight ensued in which the Boers lost 26 men killed, with some prisoners. A great quantity of grain and forage, and many carts, were destroyed. It was by countless operations of this kind that the resources of the enemy were gradually diminished, and their means of resistance brought near to the point of extinction. In July, a force under General Fetherstonhaugh was engaged in an extended sweeping and scouring expedition to the west of the Magaliesberg range and between Rüstenburg and Zeerust. The country was of a broken and bushy character, but marvellously fertile, with hundreds of farmsteads in the kloofs, and with agriculture proceeding as if no war were afoot in the land. Three columns under Cols. Rawlinson, Hickie, and Williams left Klerksdorp on June 25th, reaching Ventersdorp without opposition. Parallel to each other, they continued to sweep the region, capturing large numbers of cattle and sheep, and destroying much grain in concealed stores. Small parties of Boers were encountered and dispersed with loss, and the columns met ultimately at Zeerust. Lord Methuen's force, which had been operating further north, came in with prisoners and many refugees, wagons, and head of stock. Leaving Zeerust on July 16th, the British troops passed through a bare and desolate country to Lichtenburg, after which point attacking parties of Boers were repulsed. The whole operations of this central force in the western Transvaal showed about 35 Boers prisoners and surrendered, some scores of captured horses and mules, 2000 cattle, 10,000 sheep, 110 wagons, 46 carts, and vast quantities of grain, mealies (maize) and other food-stuffs carried away or destroyed. Three thousand refugees left Zeerust, and 1000 were brought in to Klerksdorp. In July, General Barton

and Col. Stewart were busy in the region south-west of Pretoria, dispersing marauders, taking prisoners and surrendered men, with their families and stock, ammunition, and many rifles. Early in August, Cols. Rawlinson and Cunningham attacked the Boers north-west of Vereeniging, taking a score or two of prisoners, with ammunition, and many wagons. Lord Kitchener's report for August 12th gave the largest return he "had yet had for one week". Nearly 40 Boers had been killed, 20 wounded, including a commandant; 685 prisoners taken, including F. Wolmarans, late chairman of the First Volksraad; 85 surrenders, including Commandant De Villiers; giving a grand total of 829 Boers off the fighting strength of the foe. The successes also included 24,100 rounds of small-arms ammunition, 754 wagons, 5580 horses, over 33,000 cattle, and large quantities of other stock. It should be noted that most of these captures were made in the west of Orange River Colony, not in the Transvaal. The hard work of the British columns is seen in the fact that, during these operations, the mounted men, on one day, covered nearly 50 miles of ground. At one point, after a forced march of 25 miles, the New South Wales Mounted Rifles intercepted a Boer convoy, capturing the whole, consisting of over 100 wagons and carts, thousands of sheep and cattle, eighteen prisoners, and 8000 rounds of ammunition. Nothing can be conceived more monotonous, in deed and in description, than these doings, nothing more effective for the ending of the war. On August 22nd, Lord Methuen's force arrived at Klerksdorp from Taungs, on the south-western Transvaal frontier, after acting in concert with Cols. Hickie and Williams, under Gen. Fetherstonhaugh, in a great sweeping movement north-westwards to Mafeking. The total captures since the column left Taungs were 76 horses, 400 oxen, 1840 head of cattle, 16,580 sheep and goats, over 1000 bags of grain, some donkeys and mules, wagons and carts, with a few prisoners and surrendered men. Col. Williams, in moving up the valley of the Vaal on Klerksdorp, had covered 60 miles in 27 hours, capturing an entire convoy after a hard gallop of twelve miles and some sharp fighting, with 18 prisoners, 9000 rounds small-arms ammunition, 86 wagons, other vehicles, and much stock. The prisoners included the Landdrost of Bloemhof, and a telegraphist with complete wire-tapping apparatus.

Early in September, Lord Methuen's forces defeated the enemy under Delarey and one of his colleagues, in the Great Marico valley, driving them from a strong position, with the loss of 18 killed, 41 prisoners, and some wagons and stock. Among the killed were Gen. Lemmer and Field-cornet Joubert. The British casualties were 15 killed and 30 wounded. To the north-west of Rüstenburg, Col. Kekewich, formerly the able defender of Kimberley, had continuous successes of a minor class, capturing on one occasion, in September, 35 men, 60 horses and donkeys, 479 head of cattle, 30 rifles, and five wagons full of clothing. On Oct. 1st, in the north-west of Orange River Colony, a force under Major Holmes captured the whole of Commandant Marais' laager, consisting of 17 wagons, 10 carts, and 800 cattle. 20 prisoners were made, and a few of the enemy were killed and wounded. Three days later, Col. Byng's column reached Kroonstad to refit, after thoroughly scouring the district between Klerksdorp and Vredefort Road. The British brought in 2000 sheep, 400 cattle, and some prisoners. At dawn the town of Parys (Parijs) was surprised, with the capture of 15 prisoners. The enemy were found to be very badly off for clothing, and at this time captured British were almost invariably stripped of their khaki suits, whereby Boers were enabled to masquerade as British, and sometimes cause confusion and loss through being mistaken by our men for friends. We must now deal with the brilliant action of Kekewich against Delarey.

The British commander, after operating in the Rüstenburg country, in conjunction with Fetherstonhaugh, had chased Delarey to the north-west, and on the evening of Sept. 29th Kekewich's force bivouacked on the farm at Moedwill, near to Magato's Nek, about 15 miles west of Rüstenburg. Fetherstonhaugh was a good many miles away, and the Boer commander, full of daring and resource, planned a skilful and sudden attack. Doubling back, Delarey tried to surprise Kekewich, and, if possible, to overwhelm his force before Fetherstonhaugh could arrive in aid. He came very near to success, and the British troops were saved only by their own dashing and sustained courage. The Boers, from 1000 to 1200 strong, led by Kemp and Delarey, assailed Kekewich's men within a triangle formed by the Selous river on the right, a deep donga on the left, and the Rüstenburg-Zeerust road as the

base, traversing their immediate front. Two guns of the 28th Field Battery and a pom-pom pointed to the road, with the lines of the Derbyshires, the men of Vlakfontein, immediately north. At the junction of the donga with the river lay the 1st Scottish Horse and the 27th and 48th Companies of Imperial Yeomanry. The line of the river, threatened by a high ridge, was strongly picketed by the Yeomanry and the Derbyshires, while the Scottish Horse, with a whole squadron, guarded the point, north-eastwards, near the head of the donga. Commandant Kemp, who led the Boer attack, arranged his men, under cover of the darkness, for a sudden attack on the British position from both sides. About half-past four a Yeomanry patrol sent through the drift was attacked and almost destroyed. The Boers, at the signal of firing, poured in heavy volleys at close quarters on the Derbyshires, and the whole camp was at once under a severe fire. The troops thus suddenly aroused sprang to arms. Many of the British horses stampeded, and some confusion was thus caused, but there was no panic in any quarter, and the infantry and irregular horse hurried forward to extricate the pickets and drive back the foe. The guns could not be used in their position, and the gunners joined in the fight with small-arms. Col. Kekewich was wounded early in the struggle, but was able to direct the counter-attack, and sent two strong companies of the Derbyshires over the road and round by the donga in search of Boers on that side. The men were speedily in contact with another body of the enemy, and drove them headlong away. The Scottish Horse poured in a cross fire from the upper part of the triangle, and the retreat of the Boers made the contest become one wholly along the bank of the river. The enemy kept up an incessant fire, but the British pressed onward with superb courage and forced them, by degrees, to retire. A squadron of the Scottish Horse, fresh from home, and under fire for the first time, made a grand charge, and were well supported by the Yeomanry. Ten officers and 48 men of the Scots were wounded, one of the former fatally. By half-past five the Boers were in full retreat, and our guns poured in shrapnel to hasten their pace. The day was won, at severe cost to the victors—2 officers killed, and 11 severely wounded, with 3 slightly hurt, 31 non-coms. and men killed, 6 dangerously, 42 severely, and 26 slightly wounded. A Boer commandant was

killed, and their loss was severe, but, as usual, not exactly known. The British success lay in the fact that a skilful and determined attack, in which Delarey hoped to overwhelm our force and capture guns, arms, and ammunition, was thoroughly repelled.

About a month after this repulse, Delarey and his colleague Kemp made another vigorous attack on British forces. Two of our columns left Zeerust on October 17th, one clearing the country to the north and south of Rüstenburg as far as Lindley Drift, the other doing similar work towards Elands River. On Oct. 24th, as this second column was drawing near to Wilgeboom Spruit, which our mounted troops had just reached, a few Boers were seen retiring, and some shells were sent after them. The British left flank was then suddenly assailed by some hundreds of Boers, under Commandant Kemp and other leaders. The enemy dashed at our mule convoy at a point where the country was much broken and covered with scrub, and many of the native drivers were shot down. While this fight was in progress, Delarey, with Steenkamp, and a force estimated at 1000 men, made a fierce attack on the rear-guard and the guns. The gunners and the Northumberland Fusiliers made a gallant resistance. Lieut. Hill, of the 4th Battery Royal Field Artillery, was killed, and sixteen men had fallen before our mounted troops arrived on the left flank in aid. The whole action lasted for about 20 minutes, with the loss, for the British, of 2 officers and 26 men killed, and 5 officers and 50 men wounded, the enemy also capturing 8 wagons. Of the drivers and gunners of the battery, and the Northumberlands who formed the escort, nearly 40 were killed or disabled. The attack was, however, well beaten off. Commandant Oosthuisen, a right-hand of Kemp's, was mortally wounded, and another leader, slightly hurt, was taken. The Boers left 48 men dead on the field, with 5 prisoners, Hans Joubert, a member of the former Volksraad, being among the slain.

Towards the end of November, Col. Colenbrander, with the 1st Battalion Kitchener's Fighting Scouts, arrived at Warm Baths, in the northern Transvaal, from Magalapye, a station far north on the Rhodesia railway. This active commander had completed a successful "drive". In the course of six weeks, his force had ranged all over the region within a radius of 150 miles to

the north and west of the central line of railway to Pietersburg, as far as the border of Bechuanaland. They cleared the country on each side as they advanced, on one occasion forcing a commando of superior strength to flee, capturing some prisoners, and large quantities of stock, wagons, and grain. At the beginning of November, the Scouts were at Warm Baths for a brief rest. Commandos of Beyers, Badenhorst and other leaders were in the upper north-western district of the Transvaal, and Colenbrander, in conjunction with Col. Dawkins, advanced on a wide front. The Boers everywhere refused to stand, and resorted to the petty warfare known as "sniping" and "scrapping" at long or short range. In the course of the march to Magalapye, the British troops rode for 100 miles along the northern bank of the Crocodile River, which was then crossed at great risk, with the water in flood, one man being drowned. In eight hours men, horses, wagons, and captured stock were got across, every man, from the colonel to the native drivers, toiling hard. The force then trekked onwards, clearing all the northern steppes of the vast Waterberg district. On Nov. 16th the British came across Badenhorst's commando near Sand River Poort or pass. The Boers, who were in much superior force to Colenbrander's men, were expecting to meet Beyers at this point, but the British commander, having fortunately seized the Poort before Badenhorst was aware of his presence, attacked the enemy in the most dashing style, driving them to headlong flight, and pursuing them for nearly 20 miles. Three Boers were killed, many wounded, and 15 captured. The Scouts rode so hard that many horses dropped from exhaustion, and the pursuit was, perforce, given up. Not one of the British was hit during either the attack or the long chase, a fact which strikingly showed the demoralized condition of the foe. Colenbrander then returned to his starting-point with 53 prisoners, including two field-cornets. About this time, there occurred the rare event of a conflict between Boers and armed natives. Some commandos had been long threatening the rich native districts of Griqualand East, lying between the north-east of Cape Colony and Natal, and, in expectation of a Boer raid, the Tembus had armed in defence of their "reservations" or private lands. The British force called Selby's Scouts was largely composed of Griquas, and this body, as well as the

Tembus, behaved splendidly in the action fought at Gatberg. On our side, one scout and Captain Elliott were killed, the latter, a popular member of the East Griqualand civil service, falling as he led the charge on the last of the Boer positions. The enemy were driven far into the recesses of the Drakensberg, to the west, carrying with them little else than their rifles and bandoliers of bullets.

Resuming the record of events in the Western Transvaal, we find that Lord Methuen, according to his wont, had been actively engaged. In conjunction with Col. Kekewich, at the end of November, Methuen, after leaving Klerksdorp, was operating in the Wolmaranstad district, north of the Vaal, in the south-western Transvaal region. The British troops made captures of importance from a Boer laager, including about 40 prisoners, as many wagons, over 20 carts, 1180 head of cattle, 12,000 sheep, a large steam-mill, and several ploughs, which the enemy had been carting about for tillage. On Dec. 17th Lord Methuen made a night-march which ended in the capture of almost the whole of Commandant Potgieter's laager. The Boer leader, with sixty men, had a very narrow escape, his family and private papers being taken, along with 19 prisoners, 89 wagons, 47 carts, nearly 2000 head of cattle, 28,850 sheep, 158 horses, and 183 donkeys and mules, some ammunition and a large stock of grain. The richness of the country in stock was a constant matter of surprise to the British commanders and to readers at home, and explained, in great measure, the long resistance of an enemy determined to maintain the contest, as it seemed, as long as any beef, mutton, or "mealies" (maize), with a supply of ammunition, could be retained. At this time, towards the last days of 1901, Boers in some force were scattered over the north-west of Orange River Colony, with our columns under Cols. Wilson, Rimington, Byng, Elliott, and Damant moving about, capturing prisoners and transport, and keeping the enemy ever on the move. In the northern and western Transvaal, in January, 1902, Methuen, Bruce-Hamilton, and Colenbrander were hard at work. The first of these leaders overtook a commando near Boschpoort, and after a running fight of eight miles captured the whole laager, with 24 prisoners, 19 rifles, 53 horses, 65 wagons, 26 carts, 650 trek oxen, and

1280 cattle. Bruce-Hamilton, in a night-march on January 18th, took 27 prisoners from Louis Botha's force, and Colenbrander got some prisoners in a night-attack on the Steenkamp commando, near Vlakfontein. At the same time, 20 large barrels of gun-powder were dug up by our men, with 200 rounds of 15-pounder shrapnel shells. A small reverse befell a party of our Imperial Yeomanry, 25 of whom were escorting a body of natives at one of the countless "spruits", engaged in cutting grass for forage. A body of 150 Boers surprised the British, and after a gallant fight, in which 6 Boers were killed, and 4 wounded, the Yeomanry, with 1 man killed and 7 disabled, were overpowered and taken. At this time, the northern Transvaal was reported "almost clear of the enemy", with Beyers' commando alone in the field, the men being disinclined to fight, after an aimless wandering for weeks in the Waterberg region, searching for the scanty food-supplies there remaining, and enduring privations. Very few Boers remained in the wild Zoutpansberg district, the existence of a thick Kaffir population rendering it impossible to move without their doings being made known to British forces. The region had become a good source of supplies for the British, large quantities of mealies being, month by month, purchased from the Kaffirs and brought into our lines. By this time, the invaluable block-house system had been almost completed from Klerksdorp, by way of Ventersdorp, to Zeerust, with Col. Kekewich patrolling the line and capturing Boers driven up against the barbed wire.

Early in February, 1902, a good success was gained over a portion of the redoubtable Delarey's command, at Gruisfontein, eastwards of Lichtenburg, midway between Ventersdorp and Mafeking. Kekewich, having learned the position of Commandant Albert's laager, sent out a mounted force at 11 p.m. on Feb. 4th, to attack it. The British, under the active and able Major Leader, reached the enemy's position at daybreak, and, in excellent imitation of the tactics often used with success against ourselves, promptly "stampeded" the enemy's horses by fire from pom-poms and rifles. The Boers were utterly surprised, and, after a brief and vain resistance, the whole body fell into the hands of Kekewich's men. The 131 prisoners taken included Commandant Alberts, Landdrost Potgieter, and Field-cornet

Jan Du Plessis, nearly all the captured being Krügersdorp men. Seven Boers were killed, and 12 wounded. The victors had slight casualties, with not a man slain. Leader reported that "the Scottish Horse behaved with great gallantry". A success of this kind was highly significant, as showing that the British troops, in the long contest, had well learned their lesson from their active and crafty foes, and were now completely "turning the tables" in the guerilla game of war. Just a week later, another mounted force sent out by Col. Kekewich pounced upon a small laager at Koffyfontein, south of Lichtenburg, taking 10 Boers, and 500 cattle. The captured men included Lieut. Barnard, in command of Kemp's body-guard. Some prisoners taken two nights previously, very poorly clad, stated that Delarey had issued instructions to avoid large bodies of British troops, and not to waste ammunition, which was becoming scarce. It was also difficult, they said, for their people to obtain fresh stock after the clearance made by the British troops. The resolute and skilful Delarey was, at this very time, planning combined attacks which were to cause, along with just irritation, much needless dismay in the British Isles. The bold Boer leader was not the man to undergo, without any effort for redress, the blows just administered to portions of his command. His brilliant counter-strokes, now to be described, were dealt in the western Transvaal, in the last week of February and the first days of March.

In the first of these events, a very large empty convoy was returning from Wolmarans Stad, on the Vaal river, northwards to Klerksdorp, escorted by two and a half companies of the 1st Battalion Northumberland Fusiliers, and 280 men of the 5th Battalion Imperial Yeomanry, with two 15-pounder field-guns and one pom-pom. On the night of Feb. 24th this convoy of Col. Von Donop's, the fighting force being under the command of Lieut.-col. Anderson, camped 12 miles short of Klerksdorp. At 4.20 a.m. on the following day the march was resumed, and the wagons had just inspanned for the final "trek" home. A company of infantry was on the front, left flank, and rear, with the guns and pom-pom at the head of the train of wagons, Yeomanry riding in advance, and small bodies of the same on flanks and rear. At 10 miles from Klerksdorp, when the wagons

were all spread out in line, and the vanguard was very far from the rear, the men in advance received a heavy rifle-fire from scrub on the left of the road. It was still so dark that only the rifle-flashes could be seen. The escort resisted with steady courage, and the convoy closed up with a frontage of twelve wagons. After a sharp action, the British fire drove off the enemy, and the convoy resumed march. A vigorous second attack was made on the left flank, and the determined foe got within 100 yards of our men. Some of the wagons stampeded, but the bulk of the convoy was kept together, and the hot fire of the infantry drove off the enemy for the second time. These actions had consumed about two hours, and the convoy was again on the move towards Klerksdorp, when the rear-guard was attacked in force, and asked for the aid of one of the guns. The Boers were under the personal direction of Delarey, aided by Kemp, Celliers, Lemmer, Wolmarans, Potgieter, and other officers, leading forces exceeding 1400 men, composed of almost all the commandos in the western Transvaal, swiftly gathered for a great effort. A force of the enemy charged boldly in between the left-flank guard and the convoy, stampeding mules in all directions, causing maddened rushes of horses and oxen, and thus reducing the convoy to a chaotic condition. For two hours the British bravely resisted attacks on the front, left flank, and rear, the guns and pom-pom using up most of their ammunition, while the Fusiliers, the famous "Fighting Fifth", upheld their splendid reputation by the coolness of their fire, and the Yeomanry held their ground well despite the confusion that prevailed. About 200 mounted troops hurried up in aid from Klerksdorp, but were checked by a force of Boers in position between them and the convoy. Most of the empty wagons were captured, with the guns, mules, horses, and oxen, and Col. Anderson was forced to make a hasty retreat westwards to the railway at Kraaipan. The casualties of the enemy were at least 30 killed and as many wounded.

The second reverse came upon Lord Methuen, a commander who, after the action at Magersfontein, was made the victim of much undeserved detraction. Lord Roberts, the Commander-in-Chief, declared, in his speech on the incident which we are about to describe, that Methuen, in the first attempts to relieve Kimber-

ley, "had been given an almost impossible task". After that event, Lord Methuen proved himself, by extraordinary and sustained efforts, to be one of the most indefatigable and effective army leaders. For over two years he was ready to go anywhere and to do anything in the western part of the region of warfare. Scoring success after success, in varied operations, he was singularly exempt from mishap, and completely won the respect of the enemy and the affection of his men in a career of unselfish, unflagging, and invaluable service, described by Lord Roberts as carried out "with zeal, intelligence, and great perseverance". It was from a despatch of Lord Kitchener, dated 10.30 a.m. March 8th, Pretoria, that the British public learned, with some dismay, that this fine commander was seriously wounded, and a prisoner in the hands of the enemy, and that a British column of 1200 men, three-fourths of whom were mounted troops, had been shattered in open fighting by a Boer force scarcely superior in number. Delarey, the victor, showed himself on this occasion as surpassing all Boer leaders in the war in mastery of scientific and daring tactics which would be very creditable to any professional soldier. Skilful in design, and unerring in action, he won a thorough success just as the war was nearing its inevitable end. The scene was between Tweebosch and Leeuwkill, about 55 miles north-west of Klerksdorp. The country there is hilly and difficult, with abundant "bush", for some twenty miles or more after leaving Klerksdorp, growing flatter towards the Hart River. Lord Methuen was directing movements, in the first days of March, for the purpose of preventing Delarey from going northwards into the Marico district by the gap between Lichtenburg and Mafeking. In order to effect a junction with Col. Kekewich and his men, Methuen accompanied a force under Major Paris, composed of 900 mounted troops—Cape Police, Ashburner's Light Horse, Cullinan's Horse, British South Africa Police, a detachment of the 5th Imperial Yeomanry, Diamond Fields Horse, and Dennison's Scouts—300 infantry of 1st Battalion Northumberland Fusiliers and 1st Loyal North Lancashires, four guns and one pom-pom. At daybreak, about 5 a.m., on March 7th, the British rear-guard of mounted men was assailed by an intensely heavy fire, and was at once reinforced by a section of the 38th Battery and a pom-pom of the Diamond Fields Artillery, while the Imperial

Yeomanry and some of Ashburner's Horse were extended on either flank. The enemy came on with great resolution right amongst the rear-guard, but were held in check till about 6.30 a.m., when a fresh heavy attack was developed on the British rear and right flank, breaking our mounted troops and driving them off in confusion. The Boers were, to a large extent, in khaki uniform, many wearing the badges of our military ranks, so that, even at close quarters, they could hardly be distinguished from British troops. Great confusion was thus caused, and much addition to our losses by death, wounds, and capture. The disorder among the mounted troops was fatal. The two guns of the 38th Battery were captured, after continuing in action until every officer and man was killed or disabled. Lord Methuen, with 200 Northumberland Fusiliers and two guns of the 4th Battery, found himself isolated, but he held on for three hours, while 100 of the Loyal North Lancashires, and about 40 mounted men, chiefly of the Cape Police, occupying a kraal near the wagons, maintained a gallant defence against repeated attack. Lord Methuen's severe thigh-wound by a Mauser bullet, the heavy casualties amongst officers and men, and the expenditure of most of the ammunition, caused a general surrender at about 9.30 a.m., though the brave party in the kraal still held out, and did not give in until two guns and a pom-pom were brought to bear about ten o'clock, making their position untenable. The British defeat was due, in a large measure, to a panic and stampede of mules, whereby all the mule-wagons, with a mixture of mounted men, rushed past the ox-wagons, and frustrated all attempts to restore order. In this disastrous affair, 54 British, including Col. Wilson, of the 3rd York and Lancaster, Lieuts. Venning and Nesham, Royal Field Artillery, and Lieut. Hartley, of Steinacker's Horse, were killed: 8 officers and 124 non-coms. and men were wounded; the guns and pom-pom, and about 200 non-coms. and men were captured. The British infantry showed conspicuous courage in the action, as well as the gunners. The panic among the mounted troops, sending over 500 men in flight to the western railway-line at Kraaipan and Maribogo, pursued for four miles by the Boers, was the most painful feature of this affair. The enemy, numbering about 1500, with a 15-pounder gun and a pom-pom, were under the personal command of Delarey, Kemp, Celliers, Vermaas, and

other leaders. This reverse was very annoying, and grievous in the loss of brave officers and men, but it had no effect whatever on the issue, and the hopeless position of the Boer cause was strikingly shown in the fact that, after the reverse, the British position had a most promising appearance. The three last great "drives" had cleared an immense tract of country which had been a depôt and remount-station for the enemy. De Wet and Steyn, as will be shortly seen, had been compelled to leave a region which had been their favourite refuge for nearly 18 months, and the enemy had been reduced, by incessant harassing, to a state of nervousness which gave token of a speedy collapse. The course of the war was in no wise affected by the disaster to Lord Methuen, who was at once released, for better care of his wound, by the generous Delarey, and made a rapid recovery prior to his return home in June, 1902.

Lord Kitchener did not long leave Delarey in enjoyment of his success. Some thousands of British mounted men were promptly sent into the Western Transvaal, and in a remarkable march, followed by vigorous attacks, a heavy blow was dealt at the Boer forces. At dusk on the evening of March 23rd, a combined movement against Delarey was undertaken by columns of mounted troops only, without guns or impediment of any kind. The riders started from Commando Drift on the Vaal-Klerksdorp, and Vaalbank on the Lichtenburg block-house line. With rapid travel during the night, they reached their due positions, south of Lichtenburg, and at dawn on March 24th the men moved swiftly to the east, keeping a continuous line in order to drive the enemy up against the block-houses and barbed-wire fencing, or force an action. The scene of operations, little harassed hitherto by British forces, was well-watered and well suited for good marching, with plenty of feeding for the horses. The twenty-four hours' drive, prepared with admirable secrecy and executed with a swiftness which formed a record for this war, and can have scarcely been equalled in any campaign, was directed by Kekewich, Rawlinson, Walter Kitchener, Lord Basing, Lieut.-col. Rochefort and several other leaders. They and their men covered a vast area of country, so that scarcely a column had to march less than 70 miles, and some traversed over eighty miles in the period of action. The splendid troops, hardened and seasoned by severe marching and

fighting, well answered to the call made upon them. Some firing at short range from Boer pickets was disregarded. Chase was given to all that came in sight, and stray wagons and a whole convoy were taken. The chief Boer leader, Delarey, with the main body of his men, got information enabling them to gallop westwards out of the dangerous area before it was swept, but our commanders heard from prisoners that Liebenberg, Kemp, and Potgieter, with a large commando and several guns, were inside the region, and the British troops went on in high spirits. About 10 a.m. some hundreds of Boers, with wagons, were seen about four miles in front of Col. Rawlinson, and the enemy, retreating at full speed, made every effort to get through the British lines. Some guns were seen by our troops, and so hotly chased that they were abandoned, and so the "drive" went on, with the enemy constantly headed off wherever they rode for escape. The captured Boers declared that they never believed such a performance to be possible for British troops, and it is certain that a great moral effect of discouragement was produced. The material results were the capture of three guns, two pom-poms, 179 prisoners, and 296 mules.

A few days later, severe fighting occurred near Klein Hart's River, at a farmstead a few miles south of the scene of Lord Methuen's reverse. On March 31st an engagement took place between Delarey's commando, under Kemp and Potgieter, and two British columns led by Colonels Cookson and Keir, the former comprising the newly-raised Artillery Mounted Rifles, and the latter having the latest Canadian contingent, Damant's Horse, and two squadrons of Yeomanry. The Boers opened the action at 1 p.m. with three guns and a pom-pom from the left front at long range, while a general attack was made from all sides. The British mules carrying provisions were stampeded by the enemy's shells, and some confusion ensued. The 28th Mounted Infantry were under a very heavy fire, and Damant's Horse, having all the sick in charge, retired in good order. The Royal Horse Artillery Rifles, under cover of a farmhouse, repelled a Boer attack by a steady fire at close quarters, and the Canadians, strongly assailed in front, repulsed all the attacks of the foe. One party of these gallant colonials fought till every man was killed or wounded, the last man, with a mortal hurt, emptying

his two bandoliers and then breaking his rifle. One Boer gun was silenced by our guns, and in the end, towards night, the enemy retired at all points, leaving many dead on the ground. The British loss, in this long fight with about 2000 men, was very severe, reaching 3 officers and 26 men killed, and 16 officers and 130 men wounded.

At the end of March and in the early part of April, 1902, the active Col. Colenbrander did some good work against Commandant Beyers in the Northern Transvaal. Leaving Pietersburg on the night of March 30th with some hundreds of the Northamptons and the Wiltshires, 150 National Scouts (Boers), 100 picked Steinacker's Horse, about the same number of Pietersburg Light Horse, two field-guns and a pom-pom, he marched over fifty miles, taking a few prisoners by the way, relieved a British force at Fort Edward, Speloncken, which had been besieged eleven days by the enemy, and pursued and defeated the Boers, capturing Van Niekirk, Beyers' second in command. Hurrying next in pursuit of Beyers, Colenbrander shut up the foe in a valley, holding all the exits except one, Melips Poort, which the Boer commander deemed impregnable. A force under Col. Murray, including several companies of his own regiment—the 2nd Inniskilling Fusiliers—and a body of Kitchener's Fighting Scouts, with a 5-inch gun and two 15-pounders, advanced from Pietersburg against the pass. Murray deployed his men at the foot of the hills, which he reached at daybreak after a fine night-march at top speed, and for two days, under cover of fire from the big gun and skirmishing-shots, in the heat and dust, the infantry fought their way up the heights, holding all ground that was won, and sleeping on their arms through the night. The work was rendered possible by the aid of 250 friendly natives, carrying food, water, and ammunition, with the loss of one killed and eight wounded. At 2 a.m. on the second night a small party of the British, led by Captain Anderson, of Kitchener's Scouts, although he was ill of fever, rushed the heights and took the pass, driving the Boers off in scattered flight. Beyers escaped with 50 men on horseback, followed by about thrice as many on foot. The British then closed in from all sides on the deserted laager below the Poort, and captured a vast number of mules and donkeys and many cattle. Two of our officers were wounded,

including Col. Murray; a lieutenant was killed, and 14 men were wounded. The Boers were severely handled in the final movement, and 106 prisoners were taken. In this and succeeding operations Beyers' commandos lost in all about 250 men.

In the Western Transvaal, where Ian Hamilton was directing operations, more successes were achieved by the British forces at this time. At seven in the morning on April 11th, Col. Kekewich's columns, moving near Rooival, were attacked at the junction of the Braakspruit with Harts River by a force of 1500 Boers under Kemp, who was aiming at a surprise. The British scouts were nearly two miles in front of the main body, and had just topped a gentle rise when the Boers, evidently waiting the chance, charged through them with shouts, in a long close line, and bore onwards, hoping to break up Von Donop's column, capture the guns, and sack the wagons before help could arrive from Kitchener and Rawlinson, who were far in the rear. The advance of the enemy was covered by three field-guns, a pom-pom, and rattling rifle-fire from hidden skirmishers, while the mounted men galloped on with the flanks of the long line bending forward in the old Zulu formation. Knee to knee, they went thundering forward against the Scottish Horse, South African Constabulary, and other troops in the British front. Our men at once leaped from their horses, which they turned back to shift for themselves, lay on the ground, and opened a rapid but rather inaccurate fire. At a more furious pace, the Boers came on, shooting rapidly, and emptying their magazines at 800 yards' range of the prone, thin British line. The 5th Imperial Yeomanry were sent to save our left flank, and their fire gave valuable aid, as other troops hurried up in support. There was a terrific din of shells and bullets, and the British fire began to tell. Boers fell from their steeds, and horses rolled over, until the close line, at 200 yards away, had become tattered, uneven, and full of gaps. Potgieter was shot dead within 80 yards of the Scottish Horse, with five bullets through brain and body, and the enemy visibly flinched and wavered, a large part rushing to the right for the guns and wagons in that quarter. Others dismounted, and lay down to exchange shots with our men. The fight, raging with great fury for twenty minutes, the Boer leaders urging on their men, who vainly strove to force home their assault, ended in a decisive and

very damaging repulse for the foe. After long and less determined efforts, the enemy drew off as British reinforcements came up. Grenfell and Von Donop, on the right, had won the day, and the appearance of Col. Rawlinson on the left drove the enemy out of range to a position on a kopje. When our columns had drawn together, the camp-lines been secured, and the wagons parked, all the mounted men who could be spared advanced to engage the enemy, who at once fled almost without a shot, and were followed up in hot pursuit for eighteen miles. A number of prisoners were taken, with the 15-pounders and the pom-pom. The Boer casualties were heavy. Forty-six of their dead men were picked up on the ground where the great charge was made, and the total death-roll was fifty-four left in our hands. The same number of prisoners was taken, mostly wounded, and many more wounded Boers were found in neighbouring farmhouses. The spoils also included 19 wagons. The British loss in this affair was 7 killed and 52 wounded. Potgieter was one of Delarey's best fighting commanders, and the Boer general was deprived of all his guns save one, for which he had little ammunition. The Boer forces in this part of the scene of warfare had, within three weeks, lost nearly 500 men.

During this time, General Ian Hamilton's columns in the west formed a line between 40 and 50 miles long across the angle made by the Vaal and the Schoonspruit block-house line, and swept the country with the capture of 64 prisoners, including Hennop, De Wet's adjutant, and Chris. Liebenberg, serving his father in the same capacity. On May 7th, a new five-days' drive by Ian Hamilton was begun, with about 9000 troops engaged under Cols. Kekewich, Rawlinson, Thorneycroft, Walter Kitchener, and Rochefort. Wagons and Cape-carts were picked up in the advance to the Bechuanaland block-house line, and the enemy, completely surprised, were repulsed in all attempts to break through. At one time, the British columns had their progress greatly impeded by a flight of locusts darkening the air. On the night of May 10th our line was strongly held by wagons placed at intervals of 100 yards, and connected by two strands of barbed wire. About 7.30 firing broke out along the whole front, signals being sent by lamp that the enemy were coming on to reconnoitre our positions. The search-light on the Mafeking

railway was also at work, and attempts to break through ended in the capture of Boers at various points. The prisoners taken in the net reached 400, including nearly 100 rebels, and many Boers along the border, who had caused much trouble by raiding. A brother of Delarey and several commandants were taken, with large quantities of stock and great numbers of wagons and other vehicles. The enemy showed little fight, fleeing from point to point, and surrendering as soon as they were cornered. The British had not a single man hurt. In this fashion, promising a speedy close to the contest, practically ended the struggle in the Western Transvaal. We now turn to a brief account of events in the last important scene of warfare, mainly the north-east and east of Orange River Colony.

The methods of warfare on both sides have now been so fully described that it is needful only to narrate a few of the more striking incidents which took place in the above region during the latter half of 1901 and the earlier months of 1902. The scene of action was one of the richest parts of the hostile territory, and the British commander aimed at clearing the country both of combatants and of means of support for the enemy's commandos. During seven weeks ending on June 15th, 1901, General Rundle, with Campbell's and Harley's columns, in the eastern mountainous district forming a triangle between Ficksburg, Bethlehem, and Witzies Hoek, conducted operations in which 53 Boers were killed and wounded; 7000 tons of grain and forage taken or destroyed; 228 wagons and carts, 1400 cattle, 7100 sheep and 1450 horses brought into our lines; all the mills in the district blown up; ovens, ploughs, and other implements for preparing food-stuffs broken; 8300 rounds of rifle ammunition, 101 shells, and 25 rifles taken; and 260 women and children brought into the camps. The whole British casualties were 5 officers and 8 men killed, 40 wounded, and 5 missing. The region traversed by the columns is one of the great grain-producing and milling centres of the colony. In the early part of June, Gen. Elliot's columns had some sharp fighting with De Wet on a march from Vrede to Kroonstad, capturing a convoy of 71 loaded wagons, 45 prisoners, 58 rifles, 10,000 rounds small-arms ammunition, and 4000 cattle. In this hot conflict Delarey was present using a rifle, and had one man killed and another wounded close to his

right and left. The Boers at first retook a portion of the captured convoy, but Col. De Lisle came up with reinforcements and the fighting became very fierce, the Boers lying under the wagons and firing from between the wheels, while our men pushed in among the wheels and traces and poles, and freely used the bayonet. The enemy were thus driven off after a display of determined courage on both sides. In a march ending June 25th, Gen. Rundle's columns, under Cols. Campbell and Harley, operating in the Bethlehem district, took 43 wagons, hundreds of tons of forage, grain, and flour, many farming implements, much ammunition, 2650 horses, 2300 cattle, and over 221,000 sheep. In a night-skirmish on July 4th, a part of Rimington's Guides surprised a Boer commando on a kopje, and captured 19 men, including Commandant Barkhuizen, a notorious train-wrecker of the district, with a large number of small-arms, cartridges, field-glasses and telescopes, and 54 horses. On July 10th Gen. Broadwood had a notable success in surrounding by night the town of Reitz, head-quarters of the guerilla "government". The place lies due east of Lindley, in the north-east of the colony. The British troops entered it at daybreak and captured all the members of Mr. Steyn's "cabinet" in their beds, including his brother, Gen. Andries Cronje, Gen. Wessels, Mr. Fraser the secretary, two commandants, and over a score more officials. Steyn himself had a narrow escape of being shot as he ran, but he got away on a bare-backed horse with the loss of his coat and trousers. All his correspondence and the state documents, with £1000 in cash, and many worthless "blue-backs" of the so-called State Treasury, were taken in this well-planned stroke, effected by the 7th Dragoon Guards and other troops of Col. De Lisle's column. In various quarters, captures of Boer prisoners, and of vast numbers of cattle and sheep, were made, and near Vrede Commandant Botha was killed in action, and an immense amount of stock and food-stuffs was taken. In the last days of July, Gen. Sir Charles Knox's columns, during ten days' operations between Thaba'nchu and Bethulie, in the southern region, captured a large amount of stock, with some thousands of sacks of grain, pigs, ploughs, ovens, threshing-machines, farm-engines, and other articles. In every direction British columns were doing similar work, and steadily bringing the war to an end in the rapid exhaustion of Boer

resources. During August and September this process went on, and in this latter month Steyn's printing-press at Fouriesburg, on the northern border of Basutoland, was destroyed, with copies of Boer proclamations stating that no peace-conditions would be accepted unless the independence of the republics were restored.

In October and November, 1901, Gen. Barker, with columns under Col. Williams and Major Holmes, was at work in the eastern region, often fighting and capturing Boers. Col. Spens, after sixteen days' march circling round Newcastle, in northern Natal, towards Vrede and back, brought in 25 wagons, 300 horses, 2000 cattle, and 11,000 sheep, and at the same time, in November, Col. Wilson and Col. Byng, returning to Heilbron with large captures of cattle, had severe fighting with Boers seeking to recover the plunder. Kitchener's Scouts stormed a hill with the free use of their bayonets. The same fine body of men, operating against De Wet in October, in the country near Heilbron, did much smart work in repelling the attacks of superior forces. On one occasion, "G" squadron of the Fighting Scouts, hailing from Rhodesia, dashed headlong, rifles in hands and spurs driven home, at five times the number of Boers. De Wet and his men, when the British were within a score of yards, "bolted" away to cover, suffering much loss. Near Reitz, Commandant De Villiers was taken prisoner by the 1st Imperial Light Horse, who, in a running fight on return to Bethlehem, defeated the enemy with the loss of 38 killed and wounded, and 45 prisoners. Early in December, De Wet, after long recruiting in Orange River Colony, made skilful and vigorous attacks upon Col. Wilson's column. The British were quite surrounded by over 1500 men when Col. Rimington, summoned by heliograph, arrived with Kitchener's Scouts, the New South Wales contingent, and the Inniskillings, after a night-crossing of a flooded river and a march of 32 miles. De Wet then assailed the combined force, in the region between Heilbron and the railway, but the enemy were first repulsed, and then evaded by night, causing the Boers to pour a heavy fire for a long time into a deserted British camp where the fires were still burning. On December 18th and following days, there was severe fighting in the north-east, Col. Damant being dangerously wounded, 2 officers and 20 men killed, 3 officers and 17 men

wounded. Damant's colleague, Col. Rimington, inflicted severe punishment on De Wet's men. At the same time, Gen. Barker, with Cols. Elliot, Dartnell, and Byng, was fighting between Senekal and Winburg. The Boers were defeated with the loss of Commandant Haasbroek, a valuable leader, and many men. On Dec. 20th, at Tafel Kop, between Frankfort and Vrede, the columns under Damant and Rimington, after trekking all night through a most severe storm, in which three of our men were killed by lightning, came upon a superior force of Boers in ambush, and suffered severe loss. Out of 95 British in action on a ridge, 75 were killed and wounded, and two guns of the 39th Battery were taken, but not until our men had got away the limbers under a heavy fire and destroyed the breech-blocks so as to make the weapons useless. We must now record the blow inflicted by De Wet on Christmas-eve, 1901, and the subsequent movements against that formidable commander.

The great guerilla leader, one of the ablest historical personages who ever conducted such warfare, speedily rallying from the check just described, gathered a large body of his best fighters, and delivered a most skilful, daring, and successful attack on a British force in camp at Tweefontein, in a mountainous country about midway between Harrismith and Bethlehem, which are 60 miles apart. The column, consisting of four companies of Imperial Yeomanry, one gun of the 79th Battery Royal Field Artillery, and a pom-pom, was under the command of Lieut.-col. Firman, of the Nile and Burmese campaigns. The men were guarding the head of the block-house line from Harrismith to Bethlehem. In the absence, from illness, of Col. Firman, the force, nearly 500 men, was in charge of Major Williams, and was encamped on the slope of a wedge-shaped hill, with pickets pushed out downwards. The crest was held by pickets, but the other side of the hill, being quite precipitous, was left, as it seems, little guarded. That point, of course, was chosen for attack by De Wet. With over 1200 men, he rode to the spot on a night of clouded moon on Christmas-eve, and his men, climbing the cliff barefoot, gathered near the top about 2 a.m. on Dec. 25th, "rushed" the scanty pickets, and charged into the position. Lieut. Harwich, opening fire with the pom-pom, was shot dead: Lieut. Watney, of the Yeomanry, was killed

heading a charge. The 15-pounder jammed after two rounds, and, after an hour's stiff fight, the British force was overwhelmed, with the loss of 6 officers and 57 men killed, 9 officers and 45 men wounded, and 5 officers and 240 men captured, but soon released. A body of Imperial Light Horse, 14 miles away, at Eland's River Bridge, heard of the affair, and reached the ground at 6.40 a.m., but their pursuit was not effective against men in difficult country with a long start. The victors suffered somewhat severely in winning their brilliant success. The Tweefontein reverse, like so many others, could not influence the issue of the long struggle, and the effect was speedily wiped away by the forces which Lord Kitchener at once directed against De Wet.

General Elliot, with Col. De Lisle's and Major Fanshawe's columns, pursued the victor for 35 miles on Dec. 29th, splitting up his force and disabling the pom-pom. The pursuit was resumed with fresh British troops, and many Boers were picked up, while De Wet's main body, early in January, 1902, was severely repulsed in an attempt to break through the block-house line below Heilbron, where several armoured trains were patrolling the adjacent railway. Lord Kitchener, collecting large forces, took the field in person to direct operations. Col. Byng, with the South African Light Horse and Yeomanry; Col. Dunlop, with the Royal Artillery, Mounted Rifles and convoy; and Col. Garratt, with Australians and New Zealanders, harassed the enemy around Reitz, constantly defeating them with loss, and taking prisoners and stock. On Feb. 3rd, De Wet was severely defeated on Liebenbergsvlei River, one of his favourite hiding-haunts. Col. Byng had sent out six squadrons of the South African Light Horse and a squadron of Yeomanry, under Capt. Barker, while Col. Garratt, with 300 New Zealanders and Queenslanders, kept in touch. On the early morning of Feb. 3rd a Boer convoy was pursued for ten miles and taken, and Boer forces near at hand were roughly treated. The enemy lost the 15-pounder taken from Col. Firman's force, and two pom-poms, the very last guns in De Wet's possession. A large quantity of ammunition was taken, with hundreds of cattle, and the killed included a field-cornet. Among the prisoners were Capt. Müller of the Staats Artillery, who had charge of De Wet's guns, and Capt. De Villiers. The enemy were utterly surprised, prisoners reporting

that at the time of our attack De Wet was sleeping three miles away. The British losses were very slight, and the moral effect of the operations was considerable. We must now describe one of the most remarkable events of the whole campaign.

On Feb. 6th, a large force of Boers, certainly over 1000 men, were cooped up in a great irregular quadrilateral formed by the lines of block-houses and railways between Wolvehoek, Frankfort, Lindley, and Kroonstad. The whole of these lines were strongly held, the advancing British forces, under some of the best leaders—Elliot, Byng, Rimington, and Rawlinson—numbering at least 10,000 men, and covering in their progress a front over fifty miles in length, in close touch by day and night, with entrenched outposts, 50 yards apart, held during the dark hours. As our troops bore on, De Wet, who was within the trap, bade his forces scatter and throw themselves on the line of block-houses all round under cover of the gloom. On the night of Feb. 6th, Van Coller, with 500 Boers, made a rush, with a mob of cattle, on the left of Col. Rawlinson's rear, consisting of Imperial Light Horse. The enemy's leaders yelled "Storm! burghers! storm!" and about 100 got through, but the rest were driven back by a hot fire, leaving a number of dead, wounded, and prisoners. On the night of Feb. 7th other attempts were defeated, and two armoured trains on the Heilbron extension line steamed into a threatened zone, turning on the search-light, and pouring shrapnel and Maxim bullets on all sides. The scene, at one time, was of a weird magnificence never beheld in war. A long line of crackling flame from the rifles ran up and down a line of thirty miles in length. The search-lights lit up miles of veld. Quick-firing guns, field-guns, and pom-poms kept up a constant roar, while the naval gun at Heilbron fort added its deep boom. Twenty minutes of this din was succeeded by the crack of single shots, then by perfect silence. As the net closed in on Feb. 7th, there were 300 British per mile instead of 200, and on that night, one of special vigilance, heavy firing was frequently heard along the extended line. Daylight revealed many dead horses and men in the British front, and our men again advanced, searching every kloof and bit of scrub, and constantly picking up prisoners in hiding. The great drive was a splendid success on the whole, but not complete, seeing that the resourceful and daring De Wet, with about 400 men, broke

away at a weak point in the south-west corner of the area, on the block-house line between Kroonstad and Doornkloof. Driving some thousands of cattle against the line of barbed wire, which they broke down at once by their weight, De Wet and his followers, lying flat on their horses' backs, rode through under fire and escaped. The whole operation disposed of about 400 Boers in killed, wounded, and prisoners, with British casualties only ten. A great blow at the enemy had been delivered, and De Wet had been dislodged from his favourite scene of action, the rugged north-east corner of the Orange River Colony.

On the night of Feb. 23rd, at a point about 20 miles due south of Vrede, towards Harrismith, the enemy made a determined attempt to break through the enclosing line of troops engaged in another great drive, with the object of forcing the Boers on the Bethlehem-Harrismith line of block-houses, and compelling them to fight or surrender. About 700 of the enemy, driving before them a mob of 6000 infuriated cattle, rushed upon the line held by New Zealanders under Col. Garratt. The colonials, with a hot fire, mowed down men and cattle, until a thick line of beasts strewed the ground, and then the Boers, lying between and behind the carcasses, poured in a heavy fire. The enemy were finally driven off, leaving over 30 dead on the field, with 70 dead horses, 100 unwounded horses, and the whole herd of cattle. The gallant New Zealanders lost two officers and 21 men killed, and five officers and 31 men wounded. Four days later, on Feb. 27th, "Majuba", and also "Paardeberg" day, Lord Kitchener was enabled to report the success of another great "drive" in the same region, with a loss to the enemy of over 600 men killed or prisoners, 2000 horses, 28,000 cattle, 200 wagons, 60,000 sheep, 600 rifles, and 50,000 rounds small-arms ammunition. The slain included a Boer leader, Manie Botha, and among the prisoners were De Wet's son, his secretary; two commandants, and several field-cornets. The Boer losses soon reached 900, and in the week ending March 8th, Col. Rimington's column, operating near Reitz, discovered in a cave De Wet's store of ammunition, with 300,000 rounds of Martini, and 10,000 rounds Lee-Metford cartridges, several hundred shell and fuses, 200 lbs. of powder, a Maxim gun, two helios, and field-telegraph apparatus. Lord Kitchener's series of great drives were almost ended by March 11th, the field of

operations being the Heilbron-Frankfort-Bothaspan and the Lindley-Bethlehem-Harrismith block-house lines, with the country swept by columns under Cols. Elliot, Barker, Rimington, Nixon, Rawlinson, and Garratt. De Wet was thoroughly deceived by his great opponent's artful tactics, and large numbers of prisoners were taken. De Wet and Steyn, however, escaped to the west of the main Orange Colony railway with about 40 men and a light mule-wagon. The last operations of any importance in this region took place in the first week of May, 1902, when Gen. Bruce-Hamilton, in the north, captured over 320 Boers, including a commandant and three field-cornets, with horses and cattle, and with very little loss to his own forces.

The final campaign in Cape Colony may be soon dismissed. The discomfiture of De Wet in that quarter, at the end of February, 1901, has been already recorded. In the following June, Lord Kitchener, hearing that Steyn was urging De Wet and Delarey to invade Cape Colony again, with the view of obtaining supplies, sent General French to assume command of all the forces in the colony. On June 7th that able general arrived, and, with reinforced columns, was soon at work. For nine months or more, many small commandos, little better than bands of brigands, were harassing the region, plundering and burning the property and homesteads of loyalists, and inflicting many cruelties, varied by murder, on natives. De Wet and Delarey declined to encounter General French, and his operations consisted of countless movements of small columns against petty bands of rebels under Scheepers and Malan, Swanepoel and Fouché, Kruitzinger and other leaders. From east to west, and from north to near the southern coast, there was continual fighting in one quarter or the other. In June, Jamestown was taken, at odds of 30 to 1, by a large force under Kruitzinger; and later in the same month, Richmond, south of De Aar, was attacked by some hundreds of Boers under Malan and Smit, who were well repulsed. From time to time rebels were caught and hanged for murder and treason. Col. Scobell was one of the most active and successful of the British leaders, routing the enemy many times, and harassing them in all directions. The surprise of hostile laagers, the repulse of attacks on towns, the erection of block-houses along the railway-lines, conflicts in the open field, and the punishment

in fight of train-wreckers, were varied by petty successes for the foe. About the middle of August Col. Gorringe defeated Kruitzinger and drove him across the Orange River, where he was hotly pursued and his command broken up into small parties. By September 1st, the districts of Middelburg, Cradock, Graaf Reinet, and Steynsburg, the chief centres of rebellion, had been almost cleared, and commandos under Fouché, Hertzog and Lategan had been hunted over the border-river, while Theron and Scheepers had been driven westwards in hasty flight. Early in September, the active Col. Scobell made an end of Lotter's commando, capturing all the men, with 19 killed. The prisoners, 114 in number, included the commander and another leader, two field-cornets and a lieutenant. The British loss was 10 killed and 8 wounded. The 9th Lancers were engaged in the action, capturing 25,000 rounds and 260 horses in fair condition. Lotter was afterwards executed for murder and treason. On Sept. 10th, Col. Crabbe surprised and defeated the commando under Vandermerwe, Scheeper's best lieutenant, at Driefontein. The task of Gen. French was rendered very difficult through the ready help given to the rebels by farmers supplying intelligence of British movements, but he and his columns persevered with untiring zeal, and gradually wore down the enemy. On Sept. 20th, at Zastron, in the extreme south-east of Orange River Colony, Kruitzinger surprised by night a party of Lovat's Scouts, who lost Lieut.-Col. Murray and his adjutant, Capt. Murray, killed in action, with a 15-pounder gun. Three days before this, Smit's commando, dressed in khaki, made an attack on a squadron of the 17th Lancers at Eland's River Poort, and a severe action ensued, with heavy loss to the British. The enemy were finally repulsed, also suffering severely. Frequent engagements, with varied success, occurred in the vast scene of action, with the result of continued losses, which they could ill afford, to the rebels, in killed, wounded, and prisoners. On Oct. 11th a substantial success was won by a troop of the 10th Hussars, in the capture of Commandant Scheepers, one of the most desperate and enterprising rebels. Taken at a farmhouse where he lay ill, this dangerous and mischievous opponent was afterwards tried, convicted, and executed for murder. In December, Kruitzinger, wounded in action, was captured near the Orange River, and another chief obstacle was

thus removed. The enemy were continually harassed by French's columns, and the inevitable end was but slightly delayed in the occasional capture of a British convoy, or the surprise of some of our smaller bodies of troops. During the earlier months of 1902, the struggle thus continued, the mastery of the scene of warfare coming, week by week, more surely into the hands of General French and his active subordinates. The last effort of the Cape Colony rebels, driven out of almost every quarter of the territory, was the siege of Ookiep, in the extreme west, near Port Nolloth, on the Atlantic coast. A British cruiser was sent to afford aid, and the attacking Boers had a warm reception, being defeated in three desperate assaults on successive nights early in April. In the first week of May, the besieged place was relieved by a British force, and the warfare ended, on May 27th, 1902, with the capture of Malan, severely wounded, one of the most active leaders of rebels.

The chief Boer leaders had, some weeks prior to this event, been seriously considering the position of affairs. They had kept up, in the hope of wearying out the British by sheer persistence, a long, brave, and determined warfare. They had been encouraged by false hopes of intervention in some shape, and by pro-Boers in the British Isles. They had won occasional successes by daring and brilliant strokes, but with what enduring effect? Louis Botha, De Wet, and Delarey, bold and able men, the chief authors of those successes, found that every British reverse was followed, not by any signs of discouragement, still less of collapse, but by the despatch into the scene of action of fresh thousands of mounted men, fighting better than ever as the lesson of guerilla-warfare was learned, and sternly resolved to make an end. The Boer resources of food and ammunition were coming near exhaustion, and further resistance was simply suicidal, rendering more complete the ruin of the country, and keeping many thousands of Boers in continued captivity, without any prospect of a good result for anyone concerned. In 1901, negotiations between Botha and Lord Kitchener had failed because the Boers insisted on some sort of "independence" and a complete amnesty for the Cape rebels, who had no belligerent rights as against the British forces. The chief Boer leaders, before the middle of March, had held meetings of their commands, and found a strong opinion in favour of peace. British

troops were still actively engaged in various quarters, but facilities for Boer conference were given by Lord Kitchener, and the result was not long delayed. On May 15th a meeting of Boer delegates, with representatives of all the chief bodies of Boers throughout the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony, took place at Vereeniging, on the border south-west of Johannesburg, and on May 20th Lord Milner arrived at Pretoria. The Boer leaders, having obtained the consent of a vast majority of the men in arms, by ballot-voting, decided for surrender, and on May 31st, at 11 p.m., terms were signed at the capital of the Transvaal. The chief points settled were that (1) The Boers lay down their arms and recognize the King as their lawful sovereign: (2) Boer prisoners return on taking the oath of allegiance: (3) Dutch to be taught—at the request of parents—in the public schools: (4) civil government, followed by representative rule "at earliest possible date": (5) three millions sterling granted by British Government to re-stock Boer farms, with the exclusion of rebels and foreigners from this benefit: (6) disenfranchisement of all Cape rebels, the leaders being tried for high treason, with no death-penalty. These generous terms met with approval in this country, and the return of peace was hailed with joy throughout the Empire, special satisfaction being felt in the event coming prior to the appointed coronation of King Edward the Seventh. On June 3rd Lord Kitchener made a complimentary address to the Boer leaders at Pretoria, his words being received with loud cheers, and suitable replies, promising loyal service to their sovereign, were made by Louis Botha and De Wet. Arrangements to receive surrenders in various quarters of the late scene of warfare were then made, and before the end of June over 20,600 men had laid down their arms. The most friendly feeling was shown between the British troops and their new fellow-subjects, and the long contest ended with the best prospect of lasting peace and new prosperity throughout South Africa.

The total reduction of the military forces of the Empire up to the end of May, 1902, was 28,434, including 5879 soldiers who left the service as unfit. Of the whole number who perished in the war, viz., 22,555, there were 1080 officers, and 21,475 non-coms. and men. Of the officers, 518 were killed in action; 183 died of wounds; 5 died in captivity; 339 were carried off

by disease; 27 by accidental deaths; and 8 invalids died on the voyage home or after reaching their destination. Of the non-coms. and men, 5256 were killed in action; 1835 died of wounds; 97 died in captivity; 12,911 were victims of disease; 771 perished by accident; 105 are reported as "missing and prisoners"; 500 invalids died on the voyage or at home. Such was the terrible price paid in the lives of British patriots for one of the most remarkable triumphs of moral endurance and political sagacity in all our history. The result of the long struggle was "the extirpation from our Imperial system of the entrenched danger which threatened the existence of our whole dominion at the vital point of its strategical connections". Not merely had a thorn been plucked from our side, but we had ended, once for all, the existence of "a hostile power within the British sphere in South Africa — a power amassing armaments, developing a warlike organization, maturing its plans, watching opportunities, prepared to wait, but ever making itself more ready against the hour of our extreme emergency, in which the long-meditated blow would have been inevitably fatal". The part played by Lord Roberts in this war has been already recognized in our record. The highest and greatest figure of all is Lord Kitchener, a man who fulfilled to the utmost the hopes built upon the extraordinary capacity as an organizer and a strategist displayed in his Sudan campaign. Burdened with a terrible responsibility in the latter phase of the South African war, he adopted intensely and implacably modern methods in a vast and complex contest, and, insensible to fatigue, incessant and ubiquitous in his efforts by means of the wires under his hand at Pretoria, he exercised a masterly control and kept up an unrelenting pressure which ultimately crushed the life out of a most obstinate resistance made by very skilful foemen. To him, as to the whole force engaged, the thanks of both Houses of Parliament were accorded, and the great commander was promptly and justly rewarded by promotion to the rank of general, by a viscountcy, and by a grant of £50,000. With his illustrious colleague, Lord Roberts, Lord Kitchener has gained imperishable fame in the pages of British History. A summary of chief events is here given:—

Boer forces invade Natal, Oct. 11th; Cape Colony, Oct. 12th	1899.
Battles of Talana Hill (Glencoe), Oct. 20th; Elandslaagte, Oct. 21st ...	„

Battle of Lombard's Kop (Nicholson Nek disaster), Oct. 30th	1899.
Battles of Belmont, Nov. 23rd; Graspan (or Enslin), Nov. 25th: Modder River, Nov. 28th	"
British defeats at Stormberg, Dec. 10th: Magersfontein, Dec. 11th: Colenso, Dec. 15th	"
Boer assault on Ladysmith repulsed, Jan. 6th	1900.
Relief of Kimberley by Gen. French, Feb. 15th: Cronje's surrender at Paardeberg, Feb. 27th	"
Buller's failure at Spion Kop, Jan. 24th; at Vaal Krantz, Feb. 7th; victory at Pieter's Hill, Feb. 27th	"
Relief of Ladysmith, Feb. 28th; Lord Roberts enters Bloemfontein, Mar. 13th	"
British disaster at Sanna's Post (Koorn Spruit), March 30th	"
British successful defence of Wepener position, April 7th–25th	"
Surrender of Kroonstad, May 12th: of Johannesburg, May 31st; relief of Mafeking, May 17th	"
Lord Roberts enters Pretoria, June 5th	"
General Prinsloo's surrender, July 30th: Krüger sails for Europe, Oct. 19th	"
British successful defence of Eland's River position, Aug. 4th–15th ...	"
Komati Poort occupied, Sept. 24th: Lord Roberts resigns command to Lord Kitchener, Dec. 1st	"
Pietersburg occupied by Col. Plumer, April 8th: Gen. Broadwood captures Reitz, July 10th	1901.
Peace signed at Pretoria, May 31st	1902.

We now give a brief description of the territories added to the British Empire through the successful issue of the contest with the two Boer republics in South Africa.

The Transvaal, a great undulating plateau lying from 4000 to 7000 feet above sea-level, has an area of 119,000 square miles. The country is bounded on the south by the Vaal River, Klip River, and Natal; on the west by British Bechuanaland and the Bechuanaland Protectorate; on the north by the Limpopo River, as far as 31° 30′ east longitude; and on the east by Portuguese East Africa, Swaziland, and Zululand. There are twenty districts, the names of many of which are familiar to British readers from those of their chief towns, mentioned in despatches concerning the war. In the west are Bloemhof, Lichtenburg, Marico, Rüstenburg, and Waterberg; in the north, the wild, mountainous, little-known Zoutpansberg; on the east, Lydenburg, Barberton, Carolina, Ermelo, Piet Retief, and Wakkerstroom; in the south, Potchefstroom, Heidelberg, Standerton, Utrecht, and Vryheid; and, in the southern centre, Pretoria, Johannesburg, and Middelburg. The territory is specially favourable for agriculture as well as for stock-raising, but has been little developed. It is estimated that 50,000 acres are under culti-

vation, and there are rather more than 12,000 farms. The chief wealth, at the time of British conquest, lay in the gold-mines. In the west, not far from Mafeking, are the Malmani gold-fields, at the sources of the Klein Marico River, the most important western tributary of the Limpopo. The Klerksdorp fields are north of the town so named, in the south-west. In the Zoutpansberg district, between the Murchison Range and the mountains giving their name to the district, are the Selati, Malototsi, and Klein Lemba fields. Far richer than these are the Barberton mines or De Kaap gold-fields, in the east, south of the railway to Komati Poort and Lourenço Marques. These are, again, far surpassed in value by the world-famous mines of the Witwatersrand, south of Johannesburg. The name means *White-water-slope,* the word *Rand* being applied, in Boer-Dutch, to the slopes down which the river-drainage flows. The White-waters Rand is, in fact, the water-shed separating the head-fountains of the Klip and Vaal Rivers on the south from the Crocodile or Limpopo on the north. The gold is contained in conglomerate strata in quantities varying from a mere trace to eight ounces per ton.

The enormous wealth of the country in this metal is shown in the facts that the gold-production from 1884 to 1898 (both inclusive) had a value of nearly 70 millions sterling; that the production of 1898 was £16,044,135, of which £15,141,376 in value came from Witwatersrand; and that, for the first eight months of 1899, the output was 3,502,048 ounces, worth over 13 millions sterling. Nearly 90,000 persons, including about 10,000 whites, were employed in the gold-mines. In the Pretoria district and other places, diamonds to the value of about £44,000 were found in 1898, and, in the same year, coal of fair quality was obtained from mines near Witwatersrand and other coal-fields, to the amount of 1,907,000 tons, worth nearly £670,000. In 1897, there were 69 mills, 22 saw-mills, 12 brick-kilns, 4 lime-kilns, 11 factories of machinery, 19 for producing mineral waters and ice, 9 for tobacco, 3 for explosives, 4 distilleries, 7 breweries, and 9 printing-works. The *State-Almanack* for 1898 gave the population as 245,397 whites (137,947 males and 107,450 females) and 748,759 natives, a total of 1,094,156, but the census of 1896, on which these figures are based, was far from being complete. About one-third of the

people are engaged in agriculture. There are no trustworthy returns concerning religious faith, but at least half the white people belong to various Dutch Reformed churches, and the English Church, the Wesleyan, Catholic, Presbyterian, and Jewish faiths have many thousands of adherents.

The chief exports are gold, wool, cattle, hides, ostrich-feathers, and ivory. The imports, mainly consisting of machinery (nearly 1½ million), living animals (£1,091,000), clothing and textile fabrics (about £1,400,000), hardware (£577,000), railway-material (£266,000), wagons, &c. (£181,000), leather goods (£346,000), flour and grain (£556,000), spirits (£263,000), sugar (£198,500), timber (£347,500), and furniture (£179.500), had a total value, in 1898, of £10,633,000 in goods on which dues were charged. Of the total imports, Europe supplied £6,332,000 in value, Cape Colony £1,159,000, Natal £1,203,000, and the Orange Free State £920,000. The total mileage of railway open in September, 1898, was 774 miles, with 270 miles under construction. There were about 2200 miles of telegraph, and 145 telegraph-offices. The weights and measures are the same as in Cape Colony, and British coin forms the currency.

By far the largest town in the Transvaal is *Johannesburg*, the mining centre of the Witwatersrand gold-fields, at 5600 feet above sea-level, with a population, in July, 1896, of 102,000, about 79,300 being males and 23,000 females. Of these 51,000 were whites, nearly 1000 Malays, 4800 coolies and Chinese, 42,530 Kaffirs, and nearly 3000 of mixed race. The seat of government, *Pretoria*, with a white population of about 10,000, lies in a warm, well-watered valley, at 4500 feet above sea-level, with gum-trees and willows growing luxuriantly in its wide streets. The Government-buildings, in Church-square, form a large, three-storeyed structure, with a central tower surmounted by a gilded statue of Liberty. On the north side is the Palace of Justice, one of the finest public buildings in South Africa. There are, among the other public edifices, an English cathedral dedicated to St. Alban, a Roman Catholic church, a handsome Jewish synagogue, a "Dutch Reformed" church, and the "Dopper" church where Krüger sometimes preached. A park and promenade, with a band-stand, is the outdoor place of recreation. The defences of the town consist of eight forts, commanding all the approaches

except from the north-east. On the south are three, commanding the road from Johannesburg. One is on the west, another north-west, and two lie to the north, at 18 miles and 13 miles distance from the town. About five miles away, on the crest of a low range of hills, commanding the whole valley from the north, is the largest and strongest of these works, Wonderboom Fort. All these defences are built of masonry, with earthworks on the outer faces, and are so skilfully masked that the flagstaff alone indicates their nature. Each fort is furnished with all the requirements of modern warfare, including a powerful searchlight, and telephones to the Government-buildings within the town.

We may here note that the British conquest of the Transvaal transferred to the empire in South Africa the protectorate of *Swaziland*, vested previously in the South African Republic. The country has an area of about 8500 square miles, with a population estimated at 40,000 to 50,000 natives and about 1100 whites. The language, habits, and customs of the people are nearly the same as those of Zululand. The natives, retaining their lands and grazing-rights, govern themselves according to their own laws and customs, subject to the restraints of humane and civilized standards. The queen, who came to power in 1899, is thoroughly loyal to the British supremacy. There is some tin-mining and gold-mining.

The ORANGE RIVER COLONY is bounded on the north by the Transvaal, on the south by the Orange River, on the east by the Drakensberg Range and Basutoland, and on the west by Cape Colony. The country, with an area of 48,326 square miles, is a plateau from 3000 to 5000 feet above sea-level, with very little wood except alongside the many water-courses which traverse the land. The great undulating plains slope down to the Vaal and Orange Rivers, affording excellent pasture, with much ground, in the east and south-east, under cultivation for wheat, maize, and Kaffir-corn. The chief occupation of the people is in pastoral life, with the rearing of horned cattle, merino sheep, horses, goats, and ostriches. Some coal is mined in the north, and in the south-west, at Jagersfontein and elsewhere, there are diamond-mines which produced, in 1898, stones weighing 307,148 carats, valued at over 1½ million sterling. In 1890 the white population was 77,900—40,751 males and 37,149

females. The natives numbered about 130,000—67,800 males and 62,000 females. The country is divided politically into 18 districts, with chief towns of the same name. These are, on the west, Fauresmith, Jacobsdal, and Boshof; in the north, Hoopstad, Kroonstad, Heilbron, and Vrede; in the east, Harrismith, Bethlehem, Ficksburg, Ladybrand, and Wepener; in the south, Philippolis, Bethulie, Caledon River, and Rouxville; in the centre, Bloemfontein and Winburg. In religion, the white population belong chiefly to the Dutch Reformed Church; there are a few thousands of English Episcopalians, Wesleyans, and Roman Catholics. The imports from Cape Colony and Natal, in addition to general merchandise, include cereals, wool, and cattle, and many horses are brought from Basutoland. Exports of agricultural produce and diamonds are made to Cape Colony, Natal, and the Transvaal. The imports from Cape Colony, in 1898, were nearly £850,000 in value, with exports worth £820,000; from Natal, £224,000, with £147,000 in exports; from Basutoland, £68,900, with £45,500 in exports; and from the Transvaal, £48,600, with exports to that country worth over £910,000. The total value of imports into the state was thus, in 1898, about £1,191,000, with exports worth £1,923,000. The length of railway-lines was 392 miles; of telegraphs, 1900 miles.

Bloemfontein, the capital and seat of government, lies on a small tributary of the Modder River, at a height of about 4800 feet above sea-level, and is on the great trunk-line of railway from Cape Town to Pretoria, about 740 miles from the former, and 290 from the capital of the Transvaal. The bright, cheerful little place, with about 4000 white inhabitants, of whom 70 per cent are of British race, and some 3000 blacks, is a brick-built town laid out on the chess-board plan, with wide macadamized streets running nearly north-east and south-west, and at right angles thereto. The chief public buildings are the Parliament-house, the hospital, Grey College, the railway-offices, the club in the spacious market-square, and the Protestant, Episcopal, and Roman Catholic cathedrals. The gardens are planted with trees, now so well-grown as to make the whole place a bower of green. *Harrismith*, called after the former governor of Cape Colony, lies at an altitude of 5000 feet near the Drakensberg Mountains, on the railway from Natal. *Winburg*, the oldest town in the colony, 70 miles

north-east of Bloemfontein, is the centre of a great sheep and cattle district. *Jagersfontein*, the chief diamond-centre, is situated 75 miles south-west of the capital. *Ladybrand*, named after the wife of the former excellent President Brand, lies about 180 miles east of the capital, close to the Basuto border. *Bethlehem*, 138 miles north-east of Bloemfontein, has been called "the granary of the state".

The Orange River Colony, at the time when the evil ambition of the late President Steyn brought it to temporary ruin, was a very prosperous and fairly well-governed state. The farmers and gardeners found in Kimberley a profitable market for their produce. The people led a quiet, contented, and pastoral life, and had no conceivable cause of quarrel with the British government in South Africa. In taking leave of this part of the British Empire at the beginning of the twentieth century, when the new mode of rule for the conquered Boer territories was not yet settled, we may note that Sir Alfred Milner, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., was, early in January, 1901, appointed Governor of the Transvaal and of the Orange River Colony, in addition to his former office as High Commissioner for South Africa. At the same time, Sir Walter Francis Hely-Hutchinson, G.C.M.G., Governor of Natal, became Governor of Cape Colony; Sir Henry Edward M'Callum, R.E., K.C.M.G., Governor of Newfoundland, was made Governor of Natal; and Major Hamilton John Goold-Adams, C.B., C.M.G., Resident Commissioner for the Bechuanaland Protectorate, was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of the Orange River Colony.

We proceed to a brief account of events in various parts of the British dominions in Africa during the last years of the nineteenth century. In *Southern Rhodesia*, the region south of the Zambesi, divided into the two provinces of Mashonaland and Matabeleland, a new scheme of government was put in force by an Order in Council of November 25th, 1898. A Legislative Council was thereby created, consisting of the Senior Administrator (President), the Resident Commissioner (*ex-officio*), the Administrator of Matabeleland, five members nominated by the Company, with the approval of the Colonial Secretary, and four members elected by the registered voters. The duration of this council is three years, unless it be previously dissolved. Ordinances passed therein require the assent of the High Commissioner at Cape Town and

the Secretary of State in London. For the administration of justice there is a High Court with civil and criminal jurisdiction, the judges being appointed by the Secretary of State on the nomination of the Company. There is a Secretary for Native Affairs, with subordinate Native Commissioners, and, except in regard to arms, ammunition, and alcoholic liquor, natives and non-natives exist under the same conditions. *Salisbury*, the capital of Mashonaland, is the seat of government; *Bulawayo*, the principal town of Matabeleland, is the chief commercial centre. Both these places are municipalities, the other chief townships being *Victoria*, *Umtali*, and *Gwelo*. Considerable progress has recently been made, and the country now has over 3000 miles of roads, over 2500 miles of telegraph-line, with 75 offices, an extensive telephone system, and about 60 post-offices. The output of gold for the year ending October 31st, 1899, exceeded 67,000 ounces. The conditions of soil and climate throughout the country are suitable for all kinds of European cereals and vegetables, and for many sub-tropical trees, shrubs, and plants. The fruit-orchards produce grapes, figs, oranges, peaches, almonds, walnuts, lemons, bananas, quinces, apples, apricots, and pomegranates of good quality, and excellent vegetables are grown in the market-gardens near the towns. The forests afford abundance of hard timber of fine quality. The farm-stock includes cattle, sheep, horses, goats, poultry, and pigs, the last being largely bred and always profitable.

In *British East Africa*, we may first notice recent events in Zanzibar. On the sudden death of the Sultan in the autumn of 1896, one of his cousins, Seyyid Khalid, known to be hostile to British influence, seized the vacant throne. The Cape Squadron, under Admiral Rawson, promptly appeared, and opened fire on the usurper's palace and batteries when he rejected an ultimatum. In a few minutes the batteries were silenced, the palace was in flames, and an armed steamer flying the usurper's flag, which had actually run out to engage the squadron, was sunk in the harbour. Landing-parties then took possession of the town. Khalid escaped capture by flight to the German consulate, whence he was conveyed to German territory on the mainland. Another prince of the same family, Seyyid Hamud ben Mohammed, thoroughly loyal to the British Protectorate, then became Sultan.

In *Uganda*, trouble arose, towards the end of 1897, through

the mutiny of a body of Sudanese troops in British pay, who were being led by Major Macdonald northwards into the Lake Rudolf region, in order to survey the frontier in that direction, and to check attempts of Abyssinian chiefs to occupy the country. Macdonald was eventually to join hands with the Anglo-Egyptian advance on the Upper Nile, which, but for the mutiny of his troops, he would have done in ample time to anticipate Major Marchand's famous arrival at Fashoda. The mutinous troops marched away and seized the Fort of Lubwas in Usoga, which commands the crossing of the Nile on the main route to Uganda. Major Thruston, who had hurried to Lubwas, was made a prisoner with two civilian officials, and the rebels also seized a steam-launch, a Maxim, and a quantity of stores. Major Macdonald pursued the mutineers with a hastily-gathered force of Waganda (the name of the natives of Uganda) and of Swahilis from the coast-district. His camp before Lubwas was fiercely attacked on October 19th, 1897. The mutineers were repulsed with heavy loss, and on their return to the fort they murdered Major Thruston and the other white prisoners. The British leader, from lack of ammunition, was unable to attack the fort. He telegraphed to Mombasa, and 150 men, with a convoy of war-stores, were promptly despatched, and a native regiment was ordered from India. On November 24th, a fruitless attempt was made on the fort, the Waganda troops giving way before a fierce sortie of the mutineers, who brought the captured Maxim into play. In January, 1898, Mwanga, the dethroned king, escaped from German territory to his old dominions, and took the field against the British with a large number of Waganda rebels. Macdonald marched against him with 400 men, and, being joined on January 8th, 1898, by a large force of loyal Waganda under Lieutenant Hobart, he completely defeated Mwanga a week later, and returned to Kampala, on his way to Fort Lubwas. The mutineers, about 400 strong, had deserted the fort, and marched for Unyoro, hoping to raise the country. On February 18th, Major Macdonald attacked and defeated them near Lake Kioga, and a few days later his colleague, Captain Harrison, surprised and stormed the mutineers' camp, with heavy loss to his force, of whom nearly fifty were killed and wounded, the former including a white officer, Captain Molony. Mwanga was in the field with a fresh

force, and matters were looking serious for British interests, when Major Martyr, D.S.O., arrived from the Egyptian Sudan, and attacked and dispersed a portion of the enemy on April 26th, while Mwanga was made helpless by other British forces. The contest had now lasted for six months, and of the Government troops, regular and irregular, more than 800 had been killed and wounded, including several European officers. The danger was all over when detachments of the 14th and 15th Sikhs and the 27th Bombay Infantry reached the Protectorate. Major Macdonald, handing over the command of the troops in Uganda and Unyoro to Major Martyr, proceeded to reorganize his expedition. A desultory warfare was carried on with various rebel bands during the summer, and they were gradually broken up. In May, Macdonald (now Colonel) marched northwards from Lake Victoria Nyanza with six British officers, about 600 men, and some Maxim guns, and, after a thorough exploration of the country between the Uganda Protectorate and the southern borders of Abyssinia—much of it until then unknown land—he reached the coast at Mombasa on March 4th, 1899. The country was found to be generally healthy, being a high, grassy plateau with mountains from 7000 to 10,000 feet in height. The natives were, in general, friendly, but there had been sharp fighting with some tribes, and one British officer, Captain Kirkpatrick, was killed, with his escort, in an ambuscade. In one conflict, the enemy had used poisoned arrows with deadly effect. The warfare in Uganda was ended by the complete defeat of the rebels, on April 9th, 1899, with a loss of about 300 killed and wounded, by a column under Colonel Evatt, on the east bank of the Nile.

The "British Peace" thus established in Uganda was a substitution of civilization for savagery, of security in place of deadly peril. In 1896, two caravans were massacred on the route from Mombasa to the interior. In 1900, in the words of a recent African traveller, a man could go the whole distance of 800 miles from the sea-coast to Uganda and its Lake Victoria, "in absolute safety, with nothing but a walking-stick". Two-thirds of this great stretch of country lie within the British East Africa Protectorate, and transport was extremely difficult owing to the small number of people to act as porters, and to the necessity of passing through districts infested by the terrible tsetse-fly, whose bite is

fatal to oxen and horses. The cost of carriage for a ton of goods was about £300, and it is clear that the development and progress of the country depend on the completion of the railway on which 15,000 men are employed by Mr. Whitehouse, the engineer. In December, 1899, the line had been carried over about 380 miles of the 550 miles between Mombasa, now a town of 30,000 inhabitants, and Port Ugowe, on Lake Victoria Nyanza.

Crossing to West Africa, we have there to deal with events of considerable interest and importance. Beginning with *Nigeria* or the *Niger Territories*, we find that by the Anglo-French Convention of June, 1899, a modification of boundaries was settled, whereby the western and northern frontiers were so defined as to prevent the risk of disputes with France, and to make the area of the Protectorate about 310,000 square miles, including the Foulah empire, of which the Sultan of Sokoto is the head, with its nominal dependencies of Nupe, Illorin, and others, together with the Tagan countries of Borgu to the west of the Niger, Bornu in the north-east towards Lake Chad, and the belt of Tagan tribes in the country south of the Benue. On January 1st, 1900, in accordance with the provisions of an Act of Parliament made in the session of 1899, the Royal Niger Company ceased to exist as a political body. The charter was revoked, and the territorial and governing rights of the Company were assigned to the Imperial Government on payment of £450,000, in addition to £115,000 for certain materials and stores, and the assumption, on the part of the Government, of liability for the interest (£12,500 a-year) payable on the public debt (£250,000) of the Company. The Niger Company continued to exist as a trading body, retaining its plant and trading assets, stations, waterside depôts, buildings, wharves, and workshops. That part of the Company's former territories which lay to the south of Idda was added to what was the "Niger Coast Protectorate", and formed into the "Protectorate of Southern Nigeria", under a High Commissioner, having power to legislate by proclamation. The territories north of Idda became the "Protectorate of Northern Nigeria", also under a High Commissioner with similar powers. Brigadier-general Lugard, C.B., D.S.O., became the first governor (High Commissioner). The commandant of the troops—about 2500 native infantry, with artillery, engineers, and other details, under British officers—was

Colonel Willcocks, C.M.G., D.S.O. The total prohibition of the importation of spirituous liquors into Northern Nigeria, established by the Company in 1890, is maintained by the Imperial Government. The first High Commissioner of Southern Nigeria was Sir R. D. R. Moor, K.C.M.G., with Major Gallwey, C.M.G., D.S.O., as Deputy-Commissioner. The military force consists of about 800 native infantry, with Maxim guns and details, under British officers.

In the *Gold Coast Colony*, the Anglo-German Convention of November, 1899, made a partition of the "neutral zone" constituted in 1888, in such a way as to assign Salaga and Mamprusi to Great Britain, and Yendi and Chakosi to Germany, thereby making a fair partition of the principal trade-centres between the two Powers. The chief recent event in this part of the empire was the Ashanti rising in 1900. A large part of the tribes were in the field in March, actuated, as it seems, by a desire to throw off British rule and regain independence, with the restoration of the former king, Prempeh. On March 25th, Sir Frederick Hodgson, K.C.M.G., Governor of Gold Coast Colony, who had with him Lady Hodgson, his colonial staff, and a garrison of about 200 Hausas under British officers, found himself in a critical position at Kumasi, surrounded by many thousands of rebels. In addition to his own force, which needed every bit of space within the fort, the governor had to protect about 3500 refugees, chiefly Mohammedan traders, Fantis, and loyal Kumasi natives, who were huddled together, in the rainy season, in rude huts under the walls of the fort, with a cordon of Hausas round them for protection. On April 26th and following days the rebels took possession of the outlying buildings, beyond the cordon, and loop-holed and fortified them with considerable skill. A small reinforcement under Captain Middlemist had arrived, and the defenders of the fort numbered about 250 men, when the enemy, on April 29th, made an assault and were repulsed with severe loss. On the same day, a relief-column, specially ordered from Lagos, arrived under Captain Aplin, C.M.G. This force, consisting of 250 Hausas, with four British and two native officers, brought two 7-pounder guns and some Maxims. They had, on the march up country, a narrow escape from destruction, being attacked in the forest on both flanks by great numbers of men pouring in a hot fire of slugs and

small pieces of telegraph-wire. The machine-guns became "jammed", and it was only after two hours' fighting that a village half a mile away was reached. More desperate work was needful before Kumasi came in sight, and by that time every officer in the force had been wounded. After the defeat of the rebels on April 29th, the outlying buildings were reoccupied by the besieged force, and the chief question became that of the food-supply. This matter was rendered more serious by the arrival of fresh mouths to feed in the shape of another relief-force.

It was on April 18th that reports of the Ashanti revolt reached the British garrison at Gambaga, in the Mamprusi country, 340 miles north of Kumasi. Major Morris, D.S.O., the Commissioner of the Northern Territories, set out in three days with 170 Hausas, 4 officers, a 7-pounder gun and a Maxim, a troop of native horse, and a native Volunteer force. Moving in single file, a mile-long column, under great heat, with torrential rains at night, along the narrow track, this force did the splendid marching-work, under such conditions, of reaching Kintampo, 238 miles from the starting-point, in 13 days, an average of 17 miles per day. A halt of two days was there made for needful rest, and on the morning of May 9th the reinforced column, now consisting of 7 white officers and 230 Hausas, with machine-guns and 82 native levies, left Kintampo for Kumasi, about 100 miles distant. At Koransa they were joyfully received by the chief of the loyal and powerful tribe, the N'Koransas. Sharp fighting with the enemy took place on May 15th outside Kumasi, and Major Morris was severely wounded in storming a stockade. The Union Jack was presently seen, still flying over the fort, around which, with the radius of a mile, the Ashantis had erected very strong stockades on all sides, each communicating with the other by a path for speedy reinforcement. An entrance was soon effected between the stockades, and the place was safe from hostile attack. The supplies of both food and ammunition were, however, rapidly failing, and rations were soon reduced to 5 ounces of meat and 1½ biscuit per day for the garrison, while the native civilians died of starvation at the daily rate of 30 to 40. The ladies showed heroic endurance under the trial. Most of the officers were wounded in reconnaissances and sorties made for the pur-

pose of discovering a way out, in order to reduce the number of persons to be fed. At last Major Morris found a possible track, and on the morning of June 23rd he marched out with a column of 600 Hausas, escorting the Governor and Lady Hodgson, some missionaries and their wives, two mining-engineers—about 800 non-combatants in all—and 1000 native civilians following behind the rear-guard. The whole column was two miles in length, with the ladies in the centre surrounded by a special guard. About 115 men were left behind to hold the fort. The Governor had so little hope of getting through the enemy that his last words to the little garrison were, "You have 23 days' food-supply, and so you are safe for that period; but we are going to die to-day". There was fortunately a heavy mist, so that the actual start was unseen by the swarming Ashantis, and an hour of unmolested advance was gained. Then came a whole day's fighting with various bands of rebels, until a village 18 miles from Kumasi was reached. On the next day, through dense forest, 12 miles more were covered, the rear-guard losing six men killed and several wounded, and then came a painful progress, still through dense jungle, for several days Swamps and deep rivers, with torrential rains, were among the troubles of the retreat. At last friendly country was attained, and, more dead than alive, and having buried on the way two British officers, Captains Marshall and Leggett, and lost 80 men killed and missing, and 37 wounded, the party, on July 11th, reached Cape Coast Castle.

We must now trace the fortunes of the people left behind at Kumasi fort under the command of Captain Bishop, of the Gold Coast Hausas, with Lieutenant Ralph, of the Lagos Hausas, and Dr. Hay, medical officer—the only three white men in the place. There were only 25 of the Hausa troops really fit for duty, the rest being just capable of standing at a loophole to fire. All hope of relief, in the utter absence of news from the coast, was abandoned. The brave Hausas died daily of starvation, about a third of the garrison being thus lost. There was, happily, no serious fighting, the fire of Maxims keeping the enemy at bay. The conduct of the native troops was wonderful in the heroic patience and perfect discipline of men worn to skin and bone, fed at last on a cup of linseed meal and a scrap of tinned meat as the whole daily ration. An outbreak of small-pox added to the suffering of

the hapless men. At last, on the evening of July 14th, the one native officer in the fort, a man 70 years of age, declared that he had heard a 7-pounder gun. Three double shells were fired from the fort as a signal. No reply came. On the next morning, Captain Bishop, standing on the bastion, distinctly heard three volleys fired in the direction of the Cape Coast road. At 4.30 in the afternoon, terrific firing was heard, and, after opening a pint-bottle of champagne—one of the few remaining medical comforts—the British officers mounted the look-out, field-glasses in hand. At 4.45, over the din of the ever-nearing fire, the glorious sound of ringing British cheers arose, and a shell passed over the top of the fort. Then shells were seen bursting in all directions about 400 yards away, and the men at the fort fired a Maxim to show that they were alive. A distant bugle sounded the halt, and at 6 o'clock p.m. (it was Sunday evening, July 15th) the heads of the advanced-guard of the relieving-force emerged from the bush with a fox-terrier trotting in front. The two buglers on the verandah of the fort sounded the "Welcome", blowing it over and over again in their excitement. In a few minutes a group of white helmets told of the arrival of the staff, and the defenders of Kumasi fort rushed out cheering to meet Colonel Willcocks and his officers. The flag had been kept flying, and the whole force, halting in front of the fort, gave three cheers for the Queen.

On learning the state of affairs in Ashanti, the Colonial Office had promptly prepared a force of over 2000 men, comprising Hausas and other troops from Lagos, Sierra Leone, and Northern and Southern Nigeria, with Maxims and field-guns. Advance was delayed by heavy rains and the difficulty of obtaining a sufficient number of native carriers. Colonel Willcocks was at Prahsu on June 8th, half-way to Kumasi, while detachments were at Bekwai, Kwisa, Fumsu, and other points between Prahsu and the besieged fort. There was heavy fighting with the rebels at many points, and serious loss in British officers was sustained. The Ashantis showed much skill in the construction of stockades faced with heavy trees and earthworks, built parallel to the road, at about 120 yards' distance, and with deep pits, in some instances, behind the earthworks, for safety in reloading the flint-lock guns, and a good path to the nearest village behind the stockade in case

of retreat. "Sniping" from high trees also harassed the British force. During the advance, an attack on Kokofu, south-east of Kumasi, by men of the West African Regiment and West African Frontier Force, was repulsed by the rebels with the loss of a British officer and several native soldiers killed, and 6 British officers and about 70 natives wounded. The relief-column, as it neared Kumasi, consisted of 1000 men, with two 75-m.m. guns, four 7-pounders, and seven Maxims. The final fighting included charges with the bayonet, finely executed by the Yorubas of the West African Frontier Force, causing the rebels to flee in a panic. The worn-out garrison of the fort was withdrawn, and Colonel Willcocks quitted Kumasi on July 17th, leaving behind 150 native troops, and 4 British officers, of the West African Frontier Force, with ample supplies of ammunition and food.

We must now notice the conduct of a gallant Scot during the campaign. On June 6th, Lieutenant-colonel Carter and Major Wilkinson, of the Gold Coast Constabulary, with 380 men, left Kwisa to join hands with another force at Bekwai. At Dompoassi, the force from Kwisa encountered a fierce opposition from a body of Adansis. The enemy had built five stockades about 200 yards long and nearly parallel to the road, at a distance of 30 yards. They lay perfectly still behind the thick bush between the stockades and the path until the advance-guard was just opposite, and then opened a terrific fire which staggered our men. The foe also fired from the surrounding trees, and the men fell fast under the Ashanti bullets. The gun and Maxims came into action, and the fight went on for two and a half hours until Colonel Carter was severely wounded. Wilkinson then took the command. Two other British officers were dangerously hurt, and the entire gun-detachment were disabled. As the bush was partially cut away by the fire of the guns, it became known that the enemy were posted behind breastworks. The officer in command of the Maxims was severely wounded, and nearly all his men were disabled. The medical officer, Dr. Fletcher, was hit, and Colour-sergeant Mackenzie (Seaforth Highlanders), of the 1st West African Frontier Force, was in the same plight. Seven Europeans, out of eleven present, were by this time wounded, and 3 men had been killed and 89 more or less disabled. Major Wilkinson, seeing that the gun and

Maxims were out of action, that ammunition was running short, and that the enemy's fire did not slacken, resolved to retire. At that moment, the wounded Mackenzie came up and volunteered to carry the enemy's works with the bayonet, if his own company were put at his disposal. Wilkinson at once ordered up the company, which was in the rear of the column, and on the arrival of the first two sections, Mackenzie charged at their head, splendidly followed by his own men and by all others at hand, led by their own officers. The enemy did not await the rush, but fled in confusion and never rallied. The whole force was thus saved from imminent disaster. A finer instance of courage did not occur during the whole African warfare of the year, and Sergeant Mackenzie was duly rewarded with the Victoria Cross and a commission.

After the relief of Kumasi, the next step was to clear the road by the capture of the great camp at Kokofu, where the repulse had been sustained. A column of 800 men, with five guns, was sent under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Morland. This force, on July 22nd, surprised the enemy, numbering about 2500 men, and inflicted a total defeat, destroying their stockades, and taking the camp, with some hundreds of guns and rifles, and large stores of ammunition. The town of Kokofu was destroyed by fire. On July 30th, another flying column of 400 native soldiers, with two guns, under Major Beddoes, after repelling three fierce attacks by some thousands of rebels, captured and destroyed a large camp near Kwisa, further clearing the line of communication with Prahsu, on the road to the coast. In this fierce contest, Major Beddoes and four other British officers were wounded, the other casualties being 1 native soldier killed and 29 wounded. In the first week of August, Lieutenant-colonel Burroughs, despatched by Colonel Willcocks with 750 native troops, reinforced the Kumasi garrison, and stormed and destroyed two large stockades near the fort. Another large rebel camp was surprised and destroyed, as well as a very large stockade protecting it. In these operations the enemy suffered severe loss, the British force having 1 officer killed and 5 wounded, and the native troops losing 6 men killed and 63 wounded. During the same month, other flying columns, under Lieutenant-colonels Wilkinson, Henstock, and Brake, captured

various rebel towns and camps, with slight loss to the native troops employed, and made a great impression on the native tribes. On August 20th, Prempeh and another "king" were deported from Ashanti to the Seychelles Islands, and one of the chief incitements to rebellion was thereby removed far from the scene. During the autumn of 1900, similar operations, causing the destruction of rebel camps and towns, reduced the rebel chiefs to submission. The British forces were aided by some thousands of loyal natives in various quarters, and the severe losses sustained by the rebels during the struggle, with the constant defeat experienced in contending against Hausas and other native troops led by British officers, taught a lesson not likely to be soon forgotten. Colonel Willcocks became K.C.M.G.

In the spring of 1898 there was a serious rising in Sierra Leone, owing partly to the 5*s*. hut-tax. Five chiefs had been sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment at Freetown for refusal to pay the impost, and news arrived that Major Tarbet, in command of the frontier-force, was hemmed in at Karene, a British garrison-town with a fort held by the frontier-police. Three companies of the West India Regiment had four days and nights of conflict before they reached the town, having incurred a loss of 50 men killed and wounded, with many of the native carriers of stores slain or disabled. Lieutenant Yeld, one of the officers, was shot dead. In May, the whole south-eastern district of the colony was in arms, and "factories" or trading-posts had been plundered and burnt. Every man of the West India Regiment at Freetown was sent to the front, along with blue-jackets and marines from H.M.S. *Fox*. Some companies of Imperial troops were sent out from England, and the rebels were so vigorously dealt with that order was practically restored before the end of the year. In December, 1898, patrol-columns were passing through the length and breadth of the Protectorate with the object of establishing the authority of the Government throughout by a demonstration of force. The hut-tax was retained, and the collection of the impost, during 1899, proceeded quietly. On May 1st in that year the section of the Sierra Leone Railway from Freetown to Songotown was opened for traffic, a notable event, as it was the first line of railway completed in the British West African Colonies.

BOOK VI.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER I.

History of Canada (1803–1841).

Primitive state of Upper Canada—Political discontent in both provinces—Despotic proceedings of the Executive—Signs of social progress—Constitutional struggles continue—Reforms recommended—Robert Gourlay expelled from the country—The "Family Compact"—Some advances towards freedom—Vigorous efforts of William Lyon Mackenzie and Robert Baldwin—Growing disaffection in Lower Canada—The "Papineau Faction"—The Ninety-two Resolutions—Seditious proceedings—Policy of the Home Government—Rebellion breaks out, but is suppressed—The insurrection in Upper Canada—Governorship of Sir Francis Head—Ignominious defeat of the rebels, and flight of Mackenzie—Raids from the United States—Results of the rebellion—Ability of Sir John Colborne—Lord Durham sent to Canada—Charles Buller and Edward Gibbon Wakefield—Treatment of the rebels—Lord Durham censured—His famous Report—Its influence on the ministry—Lord John Russell's despatch—Canadian Union Act passed—Its main provisions.

In resuming the history of Canada as a British colony we note again that, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, George the Third was there ruling a progressive and prosperous community whose tranquil condition was in vivid contrast to that of Europe, then convulsed by the greatest war of modern times. In 1806, Upper Canada (now Ontario) had a population numbering 70,000, while Lower Canada (Quebec), comprising the older settlements, contained about a quarter of a million persons. Upper Canada was still in a very primitive state, with a backwoods population partly consisting of poor gentlemen and half-pay officers from the British Isles, learning to swing the axe and to hold the plough as dwellers in a new land where their own exertions must win a livelihood from the forest and field. The virgin soil of clearings studded with blackened stumps yielded a large return for seed scattered over ground ploughed and harrowed by teams of oxen or horses, who drew the sheaves in rude waggons over rough roads to homesteads where the ears reaped by sickle or scythe were threshed out with the flail and winnowed by the wind, giving grain to be ground,

in the lack of machinery driven by water or breeze, in handmills of steel supplied by the Government, or to be pounded in huge mortars hollowed from hardwood stumps. The abundant fare of the homely, comfortable log-huts included venison of the deer that roamed in the forest which on all sides girdled the farm, and wild-fowl swarming on the lakes and rivers, which also supplied the finest fish. The farmer and his family were guarded against the Canadian frost by flannel or frieze of homespun and often home-woven wool. The very light taxation, mainly on goods for the grocer's store, levied but sixpence per gallon on spirits and ninepence on wines, with evil effect to the habits of many settlers. The roads, at this early period, were often merely blazed paths through the woods, with logs laid transversely for support of the traffic over swampy ground. There were more regular communications in the Governor's Road, running westwards through the province, along the northern shores of the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, to Amherstburg, at the head of Lake Erie, and in "Yonge Street", from York (Toronto), on the north-west of Lake Ontario, northwards to Holland River, about half-way to Lake Huron. The Indian tribes, under a paternal policy which expended a large annual sum in presents, left the settlers without any fear of the troubles which had harassed their French and British forerunners. There was little education for the young, although a "grammar-school" had been established in each of the eight districts of the province. Religious teaching was provided for by only four clergymen of the Anglican Church, and by a few Methodist and Presbyterian ministers who made their way through the wilderness to visit scattered groups of the people intrusted to their spiritual care. A revival and mimicry of Old World gaiety and fashion were seen from time to time at York and other little towns when the judge of assize came round with the lawyers in his train.

Even thus early in her history Upper Canada gave clear signs of political discontent. The Government, under the constitution of 1791, was largely divested of responsibility to the people. All the administrative influence lay with the Governor and his Executive Council of five removable nominees. There was no newspaper except the official Gazette, and even the judges, holding their posts at the pleasure of the Crown, did not always enjoy popular confidence. Departmental offices were almost all filled by gentlemen

from home who had recoiled from the hardships of life in the backwoods, and, after selling their grants of land, had eagerly sought employment under Government, where their zealous support of the Executive, and their aristocratic exclusiveness of feeling, excited the jealous resentment of the yeomen who were tilling the soil and creating the country's wealth. Many of these, born in the same position as those who looked down on the agricultural element in the colony, and retaining the tastes and feelings of gentlemen amid their rude surroundings, became centres of influence and leaders of opinion in the country-districts. Thus arose an ever-growing party of those who aimed at obtaining a larger measure of constitutional freedom. The *Upper Canada Guardian* was started in opposition to the champion of privilege, the official Gazette, and the Executive then intervened by depriving its editor of his office as sheriff, and by his imprisonment for "breach of privilege" in his sharp criticisms on public measures and men.

In Lower Canada, during this period, a similar contest was waged between an irresponsible Executive under Sir James Craig, a military veteran who was Governor-General from 1808 till 1811, and the elective Assembly which claimed to control the financial expenditure. In 1809 and the following year parliaments were dissolved by the Governor, who was generally supported by the British section of the people, while the French Canadians took up the cause of the popular House. Six members of the Opposition were arrested on charges of "treason", and the Opposition organ, *Le Canadien*, started in 1806, and the first Canadian newspaper printed entirely in French, had its printer, press, and type seized by the Government. The ferment which arose on these despotic proceedings was allayed by the release of the imprisoned members and by other concessions to popular feeling. Sir James Craig was succeeded in office by Sir George Prevost, whose misconduct during the war with the United States from 1812 to 1814 has been already noticed.

The close of that unhappy contest found the country burdened by the expenses of the struggle, but the colonists soon applied themselves with vigour to the work of development and peaceful progress. Manufactures of leather, hats, paper, and iron were begun; potash and pearlash were made from the ashes of timber burned for the clearing of land. Ship-building became an active industry at Quebec

and other ports. One of the chief Canadian wants was met in the establishment of the Banks of Montreal, Kingston, and Quebec. Roads were improved or newly made in many districts, and the abundant water-power of the streams was used for mills engaged in the sawing of timber and the grinding of corn. The years 1821 and 1824 saw the beginning of two great public works to be hereafter described, the Lachine Canal for avoidance of some of the St. Lawrence rapids, and the Welland Canal, which, in despite of Niagara Falls, connects Lake Erie with Lake Ontario. The distress caused in Great Britain, in the years following Waterloo, by the depressed condition of manufactures and trade, brought from the mother-country thousands of immigrants who were welcomed by the Canadian Government and assisted by grants of farming-implements, and of rations supplied until a first harvest could be reaped from the newly-broken soil. The might of steam came to the aid of navigation, and the paddle-wheels of craft that scorned wind and current alike were soon churning the waters of the great river and the lakes.

In the years which followed the conclusion of the war, each province was again the scene of political conflict and disquiet. In Lower Canada, the Legislative Assembly was almost powerless, in financial affairs, against the Executive Council, because the latter body commanded independent sources of revenue in the form of duties and taxes levied by the Imperial authorities, and expended by the colonial administration without any check from the elected representatives of the people. The position was aggravated by the fact that four-fifths of the Legislative Assembly were French, while four-fifths of the office-holders appointed by the Executive Council were British. In 1819, the civil list, exceeding £81,000, showed an increase of £15,000 on that of the previous year, and included an evil element in a permanent annual charge of £8000 for pensions payable at the pleasure of the Government. The Assemby cut down the estimates by about £20,000, and the Legislative Council then refused to pass the amended supply-bill. The conflict was interrupted for a time by the somewhat tragical decease of the Governor-General, the Duke of Richmond, formerly Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. In August, 1819, while he was making a journey through both provinces, he arrived at the village of Richmond, named after himself, on the river Ottawa. There it was that the

bite of a tame fox, which proved to be rabid, brought him to his death by hydrophobia. In the following January, the death of George the Third caused the dissolution of a newly-elected Assembly, and a further postponement of the contest with the Council. In an address of loyal congratulation to the aged monarch's successor, M. Papineau, Speaker of the Assembly, whom we shall see hereafter in a different guise, used most eulogistic and enthusiastic terms concerning the advantages which Canadians had received in the free constitution that British supremacy had substituted for the arbitrary and oppressive rule of the French Crown-officials.

Under the new Governor-General, however, the Earl of Dalhousie, the constitutional struggle was soon renewed, and the breach between the mainly French Assembly and the Legislative Council, chiefly composed of men of British descent, and of place-holders dependent on the Executive, became ever wider. At the same time, the increasing body of British colonists were discontented with the feudal mode of land-tenure, and with the French code of law under which justice was administered, and there were those who already urged the union of the two Canadas as one remedy for existing evils. A bill which embodied clauses to that intent was greatly favoured by the colonists of Upper Canada and by the British party in Lower Canada, while the French denounced the union-policy as a violation of their guaranteed rights and privileges. The Assembly of the lower province protested against the measure, and anti-union petitions, signed by sixty thousand French people, of whom nine-tenths were unable to write their names, were despatched to the Imperial Parliament. In 1825, during the absence of the Governor-General in England, the Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Francis Burton, conciliated the Assembly by yielding the point as to their control of the Crown-revenue, but his good work was soon undone by Lord Dalhousie. That high-handed ruler had, on assuming office, demanded a vote of supply for the period of the king's life, and, on the Assembly's refusal, he had appropriated money in the hands of the Receiver-General. On his return from England, he renewed his demand for a permanent civil list, and met the refusal of the angry Assembly by a dissolution in March, 1827. Public feeling was strongly aroused, and found bold expression at tumultuous meetings, with Papineau as the chief French agitator. Appeals were made to the Home Government for the redress of

political grievances; a large number of the British population petitioned for the union of the Canadas, and Papineau's invectives against the Executive Government were rewarded by his almost unanimous election as Speaker in the new Assembly. The Governor-General declined to accept him in that capacity, and prorogued the House when the members persisted in their choice. In 1828, a committee of the Imperial Parliament reported in favour of substantial reforms in the system of Canadian government. The Assemblies ought, it was laid down, to control the expenditure of the Crown-duties. The Executive and Legislative Councils should be made more independent of Government-influence by the introduction of non-official members, without distinction of nationality or religion; the public accounts ought to be audited by a Board; the tenure of land, for British settlers, should be conformed to English law, and the administration of the Crown-lands and the Clergy-reserves should be modified in such a way as to promote immigration and settlement. The Assembly of Lower Canada hailed this report as "a monument of the justice and profound wisdom of the Committee", but no immediate effect was given to these recommendations, though the retirement from rule of the coercive Lord Dalhousie gave much satisfaction to Canadian reformers.

In Upper Canada we also find political disquiet due to various causes. The question of the Clergy-reserves there, as in the other province, involved a chronic grievance. One-seventh of the Crown-lands, by the Act of 1791, was to be set aside "for the support and maintenance of a Protestant clergy". It was natural that, in Lower Canada especially, such an enactment should have aroused the jealous resentment of both French and Irish Catholics, priests and peasantry alike. The Executive Council had also interpreted the measure almost exclusively in favour of the Anglican Church, and this could not fail to offend the Scottish Presbyterians whom immigration was yearly adding in large numbers to the people of Upper Canada. We may here note that while the population of the lower province increased, between 1814 and 1831, from 335,000 to 553,000, that of Upper Canada grew, in far greater proportion, from 95,000 to 236,000. The power of the Government was sternly used against assailants of the existing abuses. Robert Gourlay, an energetic and ambitious Scottish immigrant who had

severely denounced official corruption, favouritism, and misrule at a convention held at York (Toronto) in 1818, was, after two abortive trials for libel, imprisoned for "sedition" and then expelled from the country under an Alien Act of 1804, really aimed at political agitators from the United States. This arbitrary action occurred under the rule of Sir Peregrine Maitland, son-in-law of the Duke of Richmond above noticed.

The key to Canadian history at this time, prior to the reign of Queen Victoria, lies in the fact that these colonies, or at any rate the main body of the British inhabitants, were groping after the fulness and reality of constitutional freedom and self-government, of which the Act of 1791 had accorded only a mere instalment and outline. British officialism had not yet conceived the idea of complete civic and political rights for British colonies as propounded in later days by such men as Sir William Molesworth and Edward Gibbon Wakefield. A representative system gave to the electoral body an opportunity to air and to discuss their grievances, but did not furnish the power of prompt and effectual remedy. Between the elective system and the Crown-nominee system arose a struggle which was to end in a paralysis of all administration. The legislative body could not duly control the Executive Government. In the mother-country, a parliamentary vote could hurl a ministry from power. In Canada, a Governor and his Executive Council, grasping the moneys levied as duties at the ports, and the receipts from the sale of timber on the Crown-lands, could withhold from the colonists the control of their fiscal policy, and go on paying the salaries and pensions of their supporters and dependents to the extent of those ever-growing revenues. The Canadians were thus contending really not only for their own interests, but in the cause of freedom to be hereafter attained by British colonies in far-distant lands. In the Canadian histories of the period under review, we come frequently across the phrase "Family Compact". This was the term applied to a group of holders of power, a governing clique, an oligarchy composed of members of a few families connected by social intimacy. In Upper Canada, this party arose chiefly among the descendants of those "Loyalists" who, at the time of the Revolutionary War, had left the States for Canada, and its ranks were reinforced, from time to time, by the immigration of well-born and able men from the British Isles. In Lower Canada, the

French aristocracy, largely influenced by feelings of nationality and religion, held aloof from the British governing body. In both provinces the executive administration was mainly in the hands of the Family Compact, which filled the Legislative and Executive Councils, and, in Upper Canada, for many years also formed a majority of the Legislative Assembly. The monopoly of power was there maintained by the votes of placemen, and hostile criticism of the Government, or agitation against grievances, either in the public press or on the platform, was visited by prosecutions for libel, social ostracism, imprisonment, and exclusion from the public service.

Prior to the opening of the Victorian age, some advance towards freedom for the Canadian colonies was effected, partly in concessions made by the Home Government, and partly through the influence of the Legislative Assemblies on the local authorities. The Colonial Office in London removed from the Legislative Council in Lower Canada all the judges except the Chief Justice, and, increasing that body by a number of members who were mostly French Canadians, gave it a large majority of non-official persons. In 1831, an Act of the Imperial Parliament gave the Assembly the whole and unconditional control of the customs-duties hitherto appropriated by the representatives of the Crown. In 1824, the elections in Upper Canada, in spite of the utmost efforts of the "Family Compact", for the first time gave a majority to the reforming party. A new popular leader and agitator arose at this time in the person of William Lyon Mackenzie, a fervid, impetuous, and sturdy Scot, born in 1795 at Dundee. In 1820 he emigrated to Canada, and four years later, after a trial of storekeeping in several towns, he found his true vocation as a journalist. The *Colonial Advocate*, founded by him at Queenstown and removed to Toronto (York), became the terror of the official world in its sharp exposure of abuses which Mackenzie, a loather of injustice, ferreted out with equal acuteness and industry. In 1826, some youthful emissaries of the "Family Compact" sacked his printing-office, with the result of heavy damages paid by the aggressors, and of an access of favour for the ardent champion of popular rights. In 1828, Mackenzie was returned to the Assembly as member for York County. The little man, but five feet and a half in height, having a slender frame surmounted by a massive head, high and broad of brow, with a piercing eye, and a mouth and chin

that gave token of strong and resolute character, betrayed his restless disposition in ceaseless motion of the fingers and a constant twitching of the lower face. In 1829, Sir Peregrine Maitland was succeeded as Governor by Sir John Colborne, a soldier of somewhat severe character. He began his term of office by refusing to pardon, for the sake of his young and helpless family, a gentleman who had been fined and imprisoned for libel, under a Government-prosecution, in his capacity as editor of the *Canadian Freeman.* The king's representative rejected the Assembly's petition in behalf of Mr. Collins; the king, George the Fourth, met the same prayer by the release of the prisoner and the refunding of the fine. The new Assembly chose an ultra-reformer as Speaker, and the "Family Compact" soon received another blow in the defeat of its candidate for the aristocratic stronghold, the town of York or Toronto. Mr. Baldwin, the successful competitor, was a lawyer of excellent ability and spotless character, who won the respect of his opponents in his prominent career as a man who "led his country through a great constitutional crisis into an era of larger and more matured liberty". Mackenzie continued his war against abuses by constant motions in the Assembly, attacking pensions, officials, and general corruption with stinging sarcasm. In 1830, the Assembly went so far as to ask, of course in vain, for the dismissal of the Executive Council, and the "Upper House", or Legislative Council, threw out forty Bills passed by the other body. The same year saw a temporary reaction in the return, at a general election, of a majority for the Family Compact government. Mackenzie was again elected, and continued his agitation for reform both inside and outside the walls of the Legislative Assembly. His expulsion from that body was caused by an alleged breach of parliamentary privilege in an article appearing in the *Colonial Advocate.* Re-elected and expelled again and again until the Government refused to issue the writ, the popular hero, in 1832, was sent to England with a petition of grievances from the reforming party, and there he received the aid of Mr. Joseph Hume, elsewhere favourably seen in this record, and succeeded in procuring the removal from office of the Law officers in Upper Canada. On his return in 1834, Mackenzie was chosen first Mayor of Toronto on its incorporation as a city. In the following year, a general election gave a majority to the reformers, and the Executive

Council, whose influence had been long declining, made a desperate effort for the cause of religious privilege by setting apart for the Anglican clergy a large number of rectories with glebe-lands attached, and putting incumbents in possession as a security against alienation through any coming legislation. The day was near at hand when political struggle was to end in armed rebellion.

It seems clear that the growing disaffection in Lower Canada had its origin in a desire, not so much, as in the other province, for the establishment of responsible government, as for French supremacy over the British element in the community, and French control of the executive. A good authority, indeed, declares that the ulterior object of "the Papineau faction" was to separate the country from the British empire and to make an independent Canada, a *Nation Canadienne*. Such was the view of Lord Gosford, Governor-General from 1835 to 1837, a man of conciliatory disposition, despatched from this country with a friendly mission to the French Canadians. In 1830, only eleven members, or one-eighth of the whole, in the Legislative Assembly, were British, and the Home Government therefore declined to accede to a demand that the Legislative Council should also be elective, or to yield control of the revenue derived from timber and mining dues, and from the sale of Crown-lands. Under the rule of Sir James Kempt (1828–1830) and of Lord Aylmer (1830–1834) the Assembly refused to vote supplies for the civil list, and left the salaries of officials unpaid. Among other troubles of this period were severe outbreaks of cholera in 1831 and 1834, with an excessive immigration, to the number of fifty thousand, in the former year, of ill-provided Irish, who landed at Quebec during the summer, and spread themselves over the St. Lawrence valley, burdening the people with the care of thousands of sick or destitute souls, and with the burial of the dead. The moving spirit of disloyalty in this province was Louis Joseph Papineau, born at Montreal in the year of the first French Revolution, 1789. He was a man of considerable energy and talents, well fitted for the part of an agitator, but devoid of the sobriety, prudence, and single-minded devotion to a cause which are needed for success in the legislator or the statesman. Of middle size, with a Jewish cast of face showing quick, bright eyes beneath large high-arched dark eyebrows, he was well read in the olden history of Canada concerning the days when the

French ruled the land, and he could appeal with powerful effect, both in oratory and in conversational speech, to the prejudices and passions of his French brethren. He was chosen, at twenty years of age, as a member of the Assembly, where he soon made his way to the leadership of the French party. We have seen him as the eulogizer of British rule, and as Speaker of the Assembly, a post which he held from 1815 till 1837. In 1834 the newspaper styled *Le Canadien*, suppressed by Sir James Craig in 1810, was revived, and the British were, in its columns, denounced as intruders and foreign usurpers of power. The Legislative Assembly then drew up the famous Ninety-two Resolutions, embodying all the grievances under which the French party conceived that the country was suffering. The British Parliament gave careful heed to the French-Canadian petitions based thereon, and to the counter-petitions of the British section of the colonists, and appointed a commission of inquiry composed of the new Governor-General, Lord Gosford, Sir Charles Grey, and Sir George Gipps. Papineau, in his harangues, now began to talk of "American republics", and civil war seemed to loom in the distance when French-Canadians were drilling in secret, and British associations of volunteers were formed for the defence of the existing Government.

At last, in 1837, the year of Queen Victoria's accession, the crisis came. The chief complaints of the French-Canadians were directed against arbitrary conduct on the part of the Governors; the non-elective character of the Legislative Council; illegal use of the public money; and undue prorogations of the provincial parliament. The British colonists, on their side, had bitterly complained of subjection to French law and procedure in the tenure of land and other affairs. In March, 1837, the Home Government, on receiving the report of the royal commission of inquiry, adopted a decided and vigorous line of policy. The Houses at Westminster, by large majorities, rejected the demand for elective Councils. The Colonial Secretary gave authority to the Governor-General to take moneys from the public treasury for the payment of salaries left in arrear through the refusal of the Assembly to vote supplies, and the "Ten Resolutions" proposed by Lord John Russell in the House of Commons, and there adopted, seemed to declare that the colony was to be henceforth ruled at the pleasure of the "Family Compact", or the oligarchy of officials and Crown-nominees. When

Te Deums were sung in the colonial churches for the accession of the young Queen, the French-Canadians walked out, and turbulent meetings, attended by many armed men, assembled to express the indignation of the people. The Catholic bishops and clergy acted a loyal part, but they were unable to control the excited *habitans*, who tore from the walls the printed copies of Lord Gosford's proclamation against the seditious gatherings, amid cries of "Down with despotism!" and "Long live Papineau!". Dr. Wolfred Nelson, of English descent, born at Montreal, was an ardent supporter of the rebellious party, who now displayed the French eagle and tricolour, and sent forth mobs of "Patriots" and "Sons of Liberty", marching to the tune of revolutionary songs. On the other side, Sir John Colborne was placed in military command of the three thousand regular troops and of other forces in both provinces, and volunteer companies of infantry and cavalry were raised and armed in defence of the Government. On November 6th, 1837, a fight took place in the streets of Montreal, the centre of disaffection, between bodies of loyalists and "Sons of Liberty", and the office of a revolutionary paper was wrecked by the victorious British. A few days later, a large party of rebels, after some firing, rescued two prisoners from a small body of volunteer cavalry, and on November 23rd, Colonel Gore, with three hundred men and one gun, was repulsed at St. Denis, on the river Richelieu, with some loss in killed and wounded, in an attack on a large stone-built brewery held by Dr. Nelson and a large body of rebels. We may here give a final account of Papineau. His plans did not include personal encounter with the authorities, and, in face of a warrant for his arrest on a charge of high treason, he fled across the frontier to the United States, made his way to Paris, returned to Canada, a pardoned man, in 1847, and died there in 1871.

The success of the rebels swelled their numbers, but on November 25th, two days after the encounter at St. Denis, Colonel Wetherall, moving down the Richelieu from Chambly to St. Charles, seven miles from St. Denis, with 500 men and three guns, routed 1000 insurgents in an intrenched position, with the loss of about three-score in slain. Dr. Nelson, a few days later, was captured and lodged in the jail at Montreal. In the middle of December, Sir John Colborne, at the head of 2000 men, inflicted a severe defeat, with the loss of 300 men in killed, wounded, and

prisoners, on a body of 1000 rebels intrenched at St. Eustache, on the Ottawa, nineteen miles from Montreal. Sixty buildings were destroyed in the fire kindled by the shells. Other smaller bodies of insurgents were forced to surrender, or were driven over the frontier to be disarmed by the American authorities. The Home Government, on receiving news of the revolt, recalled Lord Gosford, suspended the constitution, and created a special council, equally composed of British and French, to act with full powers. When navigation was opened by the melting of the ice in the St. Lawrence, ships of war and reinforcements of troops arrived from England and Halifax, and, after some further small encounters, and severe retaliation on some rebel districts by bodies of exasperated loyalists, the rebellion in Lower Canada came to an end by the close of 1838.

The insurrection in Upper Canada differed both in degree and in kind from the movement in the other province. The chief part of the population were loyal to the British crown, and most of the reforming party were seeking beneficial change only by peaceful and constitutional methods. The small revolt which occurred was due partly to excitement aroused by the rebellious proceedings in Lower Canada, of which extreme and exasperated reformers took advantage, and partly to sympathy and aid supplied by republican emissaries from the United States. In January, 1836, a new Governor arrived from England in Toronto. This was Major (afterwards, by creation as a baronet in 1837) Sir Francis Bond-Head, a Waterloo man born in 1793, and now retired from the Royal Engineers. As a man of action who also wielded a lively pen, Head was a forerunner of the famous Colonel "Burnaby of the Blues", who "rode to Khiva", and, as we have seen, died fighting as a volunteer in the Soudan. In 1825, the dashing Major was engaged under a private company working mines on the Rio de la Plata, and he gained the name of "Galloping Head" on the publication of his *Rough Notes* describing a journey across the pampas from Buenos Ayres, and over the Andes. Avowed indifference to political questions both at home and abroad did not prevent the clever, impulsive, and chivalrous soldier from playing a successful part, in one sense, in his new sphere of action. He found the parliament in session, with Mackenzie, the extreme reformer, as popular leader. The moderate Robert Baldwin and

two of his reforming friends were placed on the Executive Council, but they resigned their posts when the new ruler declined to allow its responsibility to the Legislative Assembly, thus adopting the cause of the "Family Compact". The Assembly retorted by refusing to vote the supplies, and Mr. Bidwell, the Speaker, read in the House a letter from Papineau which the Governor saw cause to denounce as seditious. He met threats of republican aid from the United States with the defiant words, "In the name of every militia regiment in Upper Canada, let them come if they dare", and at the ensuing general election, he so strongly appealed, in his proclamations and harangues, to the loyal feelings of the community, that Mackenzie and many of his associates were excluded from the new Assembly. It was then that resolves of rebellion came to the extreme party, and Mackenzie, by articles in his paper, the *Constitution*, and in speeches delivered throughout the country, incited armed revolt.

The Governor, firmly relying on the militia and the general loyalty of the people, sent away all the regular troops to the aid of Sir John Colborne in the lower province, even declining to retain two companies as a guard for Toronto, where 4000 stand of arms were stored in the City Hall. During the later months of 1837, the rebellious party were drilling and arming, while the Governor appeared to pay no heed. On December 4th, about 400 insurgents failed in an attempt to surprise Toronto, in the dead of night, and on the following night double that force, approaching the city under the leadership of Mackenzie, ignominiously fled before the fire of a loyalist picket. The militia throughout the country mustered in arms; many of the rebel leaders fled to the States; and within a week the rising was crushed by the decisive defeat, near Toronto, of another body under Mackenzie, after some sharp fire of musketry and of two field-guns, followed by a bayonet-charge, delivered by the loyalist troops. Mackenzie, with a price set on his head, fled to the Niagara frontier, making his way through snow-clad woods and icy streams. After many narrow escapes, he entered the United States, where he organized the struggle grandly styled "The Patriot War", which was little more than a series of raids perpetrated by hordes of American and Canadian border ruffians. On December 13th, a body of these men took possession of Navy Island, about two miles above

Niagara Falls, and at this point Mackenzie, proclaiming the "Republic of Upper Canada", gathered about a thousand desperate adventurers, eager for plunder, and supplied with artillery and stores at the cost of American citizens. Colonel Sir Allan McNab, commanding on the frontier with a mixed force of 2500 men, militia and Indian volunteers, took prompt action against the enemy, who opened fire against the Canadian shore from a battery of 13 guns. A hired American steamer, the *Caroline*, was transporting men and stores to Navy Island, and on the night of December 29th one of McNab's officers, Lieutenant Drew, of the royal navy, with a party of men, cut her out, after a sharp fight, from under the guns of Fort Schlosser. The strength of the current made it impossible to tow her across to the Canadian side of the river, and, being fired and abandoned in the rapids, she glided swiftly down and went over the Falls. A heavy artillery-fire from Fort Chippewa caused the evacuation of Navy Island on January 14th, 1838. The American President, Van Buren, issued a proclamation forbidding any aid to the invaders and rebels, and the capture of the *Caroline*, strongly resented in America, became the subject of negotiations between the two Governments. Other attacks, at various points of the frontier, were made during the year by forces supplied with arms and ammunition by members of secret societies in the States, known as "Hunters' Lodges", organized at Detroit, Sandusky, and other border-towns. The Canadian militia and our regular troops gave a good account of all these attempts, capturing a piratical vessel near Amherstburg in January; driving a "patriot" gang from Point Pelé Island, on Lake Erie, in March; routing out filibusters from the Thousand Islands, in June; and inflicting severe loss, in November and December, on invaders at other points. Mackenzie, the prime mover of the troubles which thus befel Upper Canada, and retarded her prosperity by interrupting peaceful industry, by actual losses from ravage, and by heavy military expenditure, remained in the United States, leading for twelve years a life of penury, varied by a year's imprisonment for breach of the neutrality laws. He was allowed to return to Canada in 1849, under an amnesty, and, becoming again a member of the Assembly from 1850 till 1858, without attaining his former prominence, he died in Toronto in 1861, after seeing most of his political aims peacefully attained.

A large number of the Canadian insurgents captured in both provinces during the rebellion, apart from the so-called "patriot war", were sentenced to death by hanging, but most of these were reprieved, and either suffered transportation to Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), or imprisonment in a local jail.

Sir Francis Head, approved by many for his administration of affairs, and censured by others as having first provoked and then trifled with the rebellion in Upper Canada, was admired even by many of his opponents for his bold reliance on the spirit of loyalty in the province. He was recalled early in 1838, and published in the following year a *Narrative* in vindication of his official career beyond the Atlantic. With no small loss of valuable lives and heavy pecuniary charges, the Canadian rebellion had the advantage of causing the country to be placed in a good defensive condition. Sir John Colborne, whom we have seen as a rather arbitrary civil ruler, was in his right place when revolt gave him supreme military control. His experience and services were of a distinguished character. He had, after campaigns in Holland, Egypt, and Calabria, fought with Sir John Moore at Corunna; he had then commanded a brigade under Wellington in Portugal, Spain, and the south of France, winning clasps for Albuera, Ciudad Rodrigo, Nivelle, Nive, Orthes, and Toulouse; he had shared, at the head of the 52nd Regiment, in the crowning victory at Waterloo. There were times, during his Canadian career, when war with the United States seemed to threaten, in connection with troubles on the frontier of New Brunswick and the state of Maine, and with the destruction of the *Caroline* at Niagara Falls. After suppressing the revolt in Lower Canada, Colborne repaired all the frontier-forts, and placed therein effective garrisons of regular troops. Returning to England in 1839, he was rewarded with a peerage as Lord Seaton, and, after being Commander of the Forces in Ireland, he died many years later as Field-Marshal. In Upper Canada, the rebellion had given ample proof of the determined loyalty of most of the colonists, and advantage was taken of this spirit to organize there a really powerful body of militia. The province, with a population of about 450,000, raised 106 regiments of infantry, complete in officers and staff, and a due proportion of cavalry and artillery, thus providing a citizen-soldiery of 40,000 men, or nearly one-tenth of all the inhabitants. We must now deal with the highly

important and salutary issue of these troublous events in Canadian history.

We have seen that the constitution of Canada was suspended by the Home Government, the ministry of Lord Melbourne, when the news of revolt in Lower Canada arrived. They resolved at the same time to send out some man of high political ability and character to closely examine Canadian affairs, having ample powers to deal with existing circumstances, and instructions to suggest any needful changes of the political system in both provinces. The Earl of Durham, of the ancient family of Lambtons in the northern county, deriving vast wealth from coal-mines in their later days, was the man chosen for the work in hand. Now in his forty-sixth year, he had long been known as a very advanced, able, energetic, outspoken, and indiscreet reformer, who, as son-in-law of Earl Grey, was believed to adopt an almost imperious attitude towards that statesman and his other colleagues in the cabinet. After sitting in the Commons for fifteen years as M.P. for his native county, he became a peer in 1828, and as Lord Privy Seal in Grey's administration he shared in drawing up the Reform Bill. He left the ministry in 1833, after collisions probably due to his intemperate zeal, and, serving for a time as ambassador at St. Petersburg, he returned to England to become again, in stirring speeches up and down the country, the hope of the Radicals, the terror of timid Whigs, and an object of aversion to all good old Tories. No political foe, however, denied the ability with which Lord Durham, caring nothing for conventional beliefs and ways, went straight to the core of political questions. When he went out to Canada as "Governor-General and High Commissioner", he had the great chance of his whole career. It was his remarkable fate to ruin his political prospects, to incur treatment at home which helped to bring him to his grave in the prime of life, and yet to win undying fame in the "Durham Report", which every Canadian history is bound to notice in connection with the most critical period of the country's constitutional life. It is his glory to have caused British statesmen at home to finally abandon the old colonial policy of regarding settlements and dependencies beyond the seas as existing in a large measure for the benefit of the mother-country. In winning political regeneration for the Canadas, Lord Durham was also laying the foundation of political success and social prosperity for other colonies

destined to become great in no distant future, for vast regions in South Africa and in Australasian seas.

Such was the man who, on May 27th, 1838, landed at Quebec. He was accompanied by two of the best authorities in England on the subject of colonization and colonial rule. Mr. Charles Buller, born in Calcutta in 1806, son of an Anglo-Indian official, and educated at Harrow and Cambridge, and for two years a private pupil at Edinburgh of Thomas Carlyle, was one of the philosophical Radicals of the school of Jeremy Bentham and the two Mills. His abilities and accomplishments, together with his lovable disposition, made him a favourite both inside and outside the House of Commons, of which he was a member from 1831 until his untimely death at the close of 1848. His skilful pen is generally understood to have given its literary form to the Report of his friend the High Commissioner. Lord Durham's private secretary and other adviser in his important work was Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield. This gentleman, ten years the senior of Buller, was son of a country gentleman in Essex. Trained for the Bar, he showed his slight regard, in 1826, for both morality and law by the audacious abduction of the daughter and heiress of the High Sheriff of Cheshire. The marriage between them, which was "solemnized" by the blacksmith at Gretna Green in Dumfriesshire, was dissolved by Act of Parliament, and the abductor underwent three years' imprisonment. Not many men would have risen so fairly as Wakefield after so disastrous and disgraceful a fall. His enforced retirement was employed in the zealous study of colonial affairs, constitutional questions, and the condition of the poor, on all of which subjects he became a copious writer. His *Letters from Sydney*, a book on Australian colonization, was so lifelike and true that nearly all readers assumed it to be a record of personal travel and experience. In 1833 his *View of the Art of Colonization* propounded his great principle of selling the public lands at an upset price, and the devotion of the proceeds to the aid of industrial immigration. His reputation for ability and for sound views on colonial questions was now established, and his selection as assistant in Lord Durham's task links the name of Wakefield with the establishment of self-government in Canada. The new Canadian dictator began his brief career by issuing a proclamation of excellent tone, in which he threatened punishment to all violators of existing

law, and invited the help of loyal colonists in framing a new system of government adapted to their needs. His next step was the one which laid him open to the successful attacks of virulent foes in both Houses of Parliament at home. The rebellion in Lower Canada was dying out, as recorded above, and eight of the leaders were in custody at Montreal. There were sixteen others, including Papineau, who had escaped out of British jurisdiction. On June 28th, the High Commissioner issued an ordinance whereby the prisoners in his hands were to be transported to Bermuda, while the punishment of death was appointed for any of them, or of those who had escaped, who should return to Canada without permission. A general amnesty had been accorded, and Lord Durham's dealing with the above exceptions was marked equally by boldness, mercy, and sound judgment. He knew that he could not, under the ordinary forms of law, find an unpacked jury in all Lower Canada that would convict the prisoners of treason. He could not leave them unpunished for their offence, and he got rid of them by the penalty of exile to another British possession. The misfortune was that, both in the banishment of men who had not been tried, and in the threat of capital punishment for return to Canada, Lord Durham was going beyond the bounds of British law and of the authority granted by the Act which had just been passed concerning Canadian affairs. He also took an arbitrary course in setting aside the existing Council, by five at least of whose members, according to the Act, every ordinance of his was to be signed, and substituting for it one of his own making, chiefly composed of his secretaries, Buller and Wakefield, and of other members of his staff. His conduct was fiercely assailed in both Houses, and the weak Ministry, severely bullied in the Lords by Brougham, on August 10th annulled Lord Durham's ordinance concerning the rebels. The High Commissioner's sensitive spirit was wounded to the quick, and he at once decided on resigning his post. Along with the issue, on October 9th, of a proclamation that declared the abrogation of his ordinance, he also published an appeal to the colonists against the conduct of the Government, justifying his own course and announcing his resignation. The *Times* newspaper, when the tidings reached England, styled him "the Lord High Seditioner", and the Government visited this last imprudence by removal from his office. With characteristic self-will, Lord Durham

had already started for England without any leave sought or granted. When he landed at Plymouth, without any of the official honour usually shown to returning Governors, he was received with acclamations by the people, and John Stuart Mill, who afterwards claimed to be "one of the prompters of his prompters" in the policy propounded in the Report, published an article in the *Westminster Review* demanding praise and honour for the defeated and discredited statesman. The blow, however, was fatal to the man whose eager and passionate nature lacked that element of greatness which consists in the proud patience, the dignified resignation to the misjudgment of the hour, the calm acknowledgment of personal error in minor matters, wherewith men of supreme moral strength, conscious of high powers nobly employed, await the verdict of a later day. The chief founder of Canadian self-government, whose health had long been failing, died at Cowes, in the Isle of Wight, on July 28th, 1840, within a few days after the passing of the Canada Government Bill which embodied many of his suggested reforms.

Lord Durham's Report, based upon a careful examination of affairs not only in the two Canadas, but in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland, conducted during the five months which elapsed before his departure on November 1st, 1838, was in great part prepared during the voyage home, and was published early in the following year. In regard to existing facts, the author declared that "in each and every Province the Representatives were in hostility to the policy of the Government, and the administration of public affairs was permanently in the hands of a ministry not in harmony with the popular branch of the Legislature". He found that in Lower Canada the contest was not one of classes but of races; that the only public occasion on which French and British colonists met was in the jury-box, and then they only met to the utter obstruction of justice; that the French *habitans*, so long under seigneurial rule, were very ignorant, and totally wanting in the art of self-government; that the slow and leisurely French Canadians were alarmed and repelled by the progressive spirit of the energetic British immigrants who took up abandoned farms and made them pay for cultivation, and, creating trade by their keen business faculties, were buying out the seigneurs from the soil. In Upper Canada, where the race-question scarcely existed, the hostility

of the people was directed against the enormous power of the oligarchy known as the "Family Compact", which had long filled the Bench, the magistracy, and the higher offices of the Episcopal Church, and reformers there desired to effect the responsibility of the Executive Council and to make them amenable to the popular will. In both provinces the question of the Clergy Reserves needed to be quickly settled. In regard to remedies, Lord Durham both laid down important principles and suggested definite measures of reform. He required that the colonists themselves should not only make but execute the laws under which they were to live, and that the Imperial Government should only regulate matters in which the interests of the mother-country were closely concerned, such as the form of government, foreign relations, trade, and the disposal of the public lands. Municipal institutions ought to be thoroughly established, and it might well be hoped that the exercise of local government, and an extension of the powers of representative rule, would give alertness and a progressive impulse to the most apathetic French Canadians. The independence of the judges should be secured; all officials, except the Governor and his secretary, should be made responsible to the colonial legislature; and all former legislation with respect to the reserves of land for the clergy ought to be repealed. In order to restore the balance of power between the French and English races, and to remove the commercial difficulties between Upper and Lower Canada, he proposed that the two provinces should be politically reunited and have one legislature, containing the representatives of both races and of all districts. The Report also suggested that other colonies in North America should, on their own request, and with the consent of Canada, be admitted to a federal legislative union therewith.

The influence of the Durham Report upon the Home Government is strikingly shown in a despatch of Lord John Russell, as Colonial Secretary, under date October 14th, 1839, to the Governor-General of Canada. This document, a constitutional charter of colonial government, embodies the accepted principles that regulate the connection between the mother-country and her chief dependencies inhabited by subjects mainly of the British race. "The Queen's Government", it is declared, "have no wish to make the provinces of British North America the resource of patronage at

home. . . . Her Majesty has no desire to maintain any system in policy among her North American subjects which opinion condemns. In receiving the Queen's commands to protest against any declaration at variance with the honour of the Crown and the unity of the Empire, I am instructed to announce Her Majesty's gracious intention to look to the affectionate attachment of her people in North America as the best security for permanent dominion . . . . No official misconduct should be screened by Her Majesty's representative in the Provinces; and no private interests should be allowed to compete with the general good." This excellent official paper then insists on the necessity of the Governor-General maintaining the harmony of the executive with the legislative authorities, and, pointing to the absolute need, for the very existence of a political constitution in which different bodies share the supreme power, of forbearance on the part of those amongst whom this power is distributed, the Whig statesman warns the Queen's representative against opposing the wishes of the Legislative Assembly except where the honour of the Crown or the interests of the Empire are deeply concerned, and requires the Assembly to refrain from disturbing all political relations, embarrassing trade, and retarding the prosperity of the people, by employing its power of refusing supplies. The Governor-General to whom these words of wisdom were addressed was the successor of Sir John Colborne. Mr. Charles Powlett Thompson, a man too little remembered in this generation, was a merchant who had risen to be President of the Board of Trade, in which capacity he proved himself to be a statesman of liberal views, a pioneer of Free Trade, an able financier, and a man of admirable judgment and tact. His prudence and skill were employed in overcoming local objections to the legislative union of the two Canadian provinces, and the draft of a Bill based upon the resolutions of their two legislatures was submitted to the Home Government and, passing the Imperial Parliament, received the royal assent in July, 1840.

This Canadian Union Act provided for a Legislative Council of not less than twenty life-members appointed by the Crown; for a Legislative Assembly of eighty-four members elected by the people, with an equal number from each province; and for an Executive Council of eight members, to hold office, like a ministry, only so long as its measures were supported by a majority of the

Legislative Assembly. In place of the territorial and other revenues previously held by the Crown, a permanent civil list of £75,000 was established for the payment of all official salaries and other civil service expenses. The people thus acquired the control, through their chosen representatives, of all the public revenues, and the judges were made independent of the annual votes of the Assembly. Mr. Thompson, raised to the peerage as Baron Sydenham, of Sydenham in Kent and of Toronto, found himself charged with the important work of inaugurating the new Canadian constitution, which came into effect, by proclamation, on February 10th, 1841, the first anniversary of the young Queen's marriage. We may here note the limitations which, both in theory and in fact, existed upon perfect freedom for the Canadian people, as conceived and desired by advanced reformers. The Legislative Council was not made elective, and might check legislation by throwing out measures passed in the Lower House. The Governor still had much real power, in being the nominee of the Crown, invested with the right of initiating all bills for appropriating any part of the revenues. The Imperial Government retained its hold over the Crown-lands, and a special clause in the Act withheld from the decision of the colonial legislature several subjects, including the Clergy Reserves, provided for in legislation of George the Third's reign. In spite of all defects and reservations, however, the progress made towards self-government was far beyond anything hitherto seen in colonial affairs, and was of good augury for the future of the Queen's dominions in North America. The spirit of the Home Government at this time was shown when Lord Sydenham opened the first united Parliament of Canada, on June 13th, 1841, at Kingston, on the north-east shore of Lake Ontario. He informed the Legislature that, in order "to maintain the utmost possible harmony, he had been instructed to call to his counsels and to employ in the public service those persons who, by their position and character, have obtained the general confidence and esteem of the inhabitants of the province".

CHAPTER II.

History of Canada (1841 to the present time).

Administrations of Lords Sydenham and Metcalfe—Earl of Elgin Governor-General—Concessions to the colonists—Irish immigrants—Opposition to the Rebellion Losses Bill—Rioting in Montreal—Lord Elgin's firmness—A new era opens to Canada—Expansion of trade—Continued reforms—Reciprocity Treaty with the United States — Provision by the colonists for self-defence — Sketch of Sir John Alexander Macdonald—Ottawa becomes the seat of government—Codification of the statute law—Proposed federation of North American states—An historic conference—The Dominion of Canada established—Its constitution—Local government in each province — Material progress — Growth of population — Railways and shipping—Relations with the United States—The Reciprocity Treaty not renewed—Fenian troubles—The fisheries question—Popularity of Lord Dufferin—Education and temperance—Marquis of Lorne Governor-General—Canadian Pacific Railway—The fisheries question again raised—Improved ocean service—Population—Death of Sir John Thompson—Great Intercolonial Conference.

Lord Sydenham, during his too brief tenure of office as Governor-General, not only acted with excellent effect as a mediator between conflicting parties, but guided the new legislative bodies in useful measures concerning the customs, the currency, public works, education, and the establishment of municipal government in boroughs and in the form of district and county councils. The hand and judgment of an expert were being felt in the construction of new political machinery. The new parliament was soon actively engaged on legislation, including the excellent system of local government which transferred the control of affairs from Quarter Sessions to bodies elected by popular vote. In September, 1841, Canada and the empire sustained a serious loss in the death of Lord Sydenham, due to shock to a system naturally weak and impaired by public toils. In his forty-second year he succumbed to the fracture of a leg caused by the fall of his horse, and he was buried, by his own request, at Kingston, among the people to whom he had devoted the last efforts of his life, in the country with whose history his name must be ever, and with high honour, associated. His successor, Sir Charles Bagot, in power only from January, 1842, until his death at Kingston in May, 1843, recognized the important constitutional principle that the administration should be controlled by the parliamentary majority. The next Governor, Sir Charles (afterwards Lord) Metcalfe, has been seen as acting Governor-General of India in 1835–36, and will

appear hereafter in this record as ruling in Jamaica antecedent to his period of office in Canada. Lord Macaulay, in the eloquent epitaph on his friend, claims for him that in a country "not yet recovered from the calamities of civil war, he reconciled contending factions to each other, and to the mother-country". Of Metcalfe's munificent liberality, other personal virtues, and high popularity in British North America, no doubt can be entertained. He seems, however, to have held somewhat high notions of prerogative, reserving to himself the selection of the Executive, and thereby causing, on one occasion, the retirement of ministers who commanded a majority in the Legislative Assembly. In 1844, the seat of government was removed to Montreal. In November, 1845, Lord Metcalfe, suffering from the terrible malady, cancer in the face, returned to England only to die, and power was, for twelve months, in the hands of Lord Cathcart, the commander-in-chief in Canada, who remained wisely neutral between two evenly-balanced political parties during hot disputes concerning a measure for indemnifying the loyalists of Upper Canada for losses incurred during the rebellion.

It was early in 1847 that the Earl of Elgin, whom we have seen in China and India, and shall meet again in Jamaica, at a prior period of his distinguished career, became Governor-General of Canada. He had been just married to a daughter of Lord Durham, and he showed, during his eight years' tenure of office, that he was thoroughly imbued with the doctrines and the principles of colonial government set forth in the deceased statesman's Report. Those principles were now applied, by a man of thoroughly sound judgment, conciliatory manners, and commanding ability, with a firmness and an impartiality which, in somewhat troublous times, did much to render Canada a loyal and contented land. He carried with him instructions from the Home Government "to act generally upon the advice of his Executive Council, and to receive as members of that body those persons who might be pointed out to him as entitled to be so by their possessing the confidence of the Legislative Assembly". When the Parliament met in June, the new Governor had to announce that the Imperial authorities were giving up the control of the Canadian Post-Office department, and that the provincial legislature was now empowered to repeal the differential duties on imported goods which had

hitherto favoured British manufactures. This concession was followed by a surrender of all control over the Civil List, and by the throwing open to colonists of many posts which had been held by nominees of the Crown. Among the difficulties which confronted Lord Elgin early in his period of rule were colonial jealousies caused by race-antipathy and by the indemnity-question due to the rebellion; the obstruction of a "British party" which professed devotion to the interests of the mother-country; and the influx of vast numbers of helpless Irish emigrants, fever-stricken, penniless, well-nigh starving, who had been driven from their homes by the potato-famine. Above 70,000 of these hapless persons arrived at Quebec by the end of the first week in August, and, in spite of every effort made by public and private charity, 4000 quickly succumbed to exposure and disease. Acting as a mediator and moderator between politicians of all shades of opinion, and supporting only such ministers and measures as obtained the approval of the Assembly, the new Governor, during his first year of office, saw comparative harmony and peace prevail. The old Tories of the British party were pleased by the possession of power. The Liberals, including the French party, welcomed a man who declared, when he was sworn in, that he had frankly adopted Lord Durham's views of colonial government. All men were delighted with a young, vigorous, and genial Governor-General who could endure the hardest official work, and cheerfully face long and toilsome journeys in the depth of a Canadian winter; who was ready with replies to sudden addresses, was the best public speaker in the whole province, and was able freely to discuss affairs with the French Canadians in their own tongue. A change came o'er the spirit of his dream, and days of calm were followed by a storm of trouble. The general election of January, 1848, sent a large Reform majority to the Assembly, including the pardoned rebels Papineau and Dr. Wolfred Nelson. The "old British" party fell from power, and the French or "rebel" politicians, for the first time in the constitutional history of Canada, obtained the full control of affairs. "Responsible government" was at last vindicated by the existence of an Executive Council of whose eleven members four were French, while the seven British members included such sturdy reformers as Robert Baldwin and Francis Hincks.

Lord Elgin was now called upon to endure the bitter enmity of an Opposition deprived of a sway which they had come to regard as their vested right, and composed of men who looked on him as a traitor to the British cause in having given a fair field to the alien French. All forms of Canadian discontent gathered around this hostile party, and especially those who hated the free trade established by the legislation of Sir Robert Peel. The chief battle-ground was to be the Rebellion Losses Bill for indemnifying those who had suffered by the outbreak in Lower Canada. In Upper Canada, both Conservatives and Reformers objected to this measure, and there were some who even signed an address for annexation to the United States rather than contribute to any "pay to rebels", as the phrase went. The Bill, introduced by the ministry in January, 1849, was carried through the Assembly, after long and vehement debates, by a majority of 48 to 32, and received the assent of the Legislative Council. The British party had already stooped so low as to show annoyance when the Governor-General, on opening the session, had delivered his speech both in English and French. Their wrath was kindled to the utmost when, as a constitutional ruler of Canada, he declined to veto the Bill, or to dissolve the Parliament, or to reserve the matter for the consideration of the Home Government. On April 26th he gave his assent to the measure at the Parliament House, Montreal, and was hooted and pelted, by a well-dressed mob, when he quitted the building, which was afterwards set on fire and burned to the ground. The portrait of the Queen was rescued by Sir Allan McNab, but the public records and the splendid library of many thousands of valuable books perished in the flames. The houses of the premier, Mr. Lafontaine, and of Mr. Baldwin, Mr. Hincks, Dr. Wolfred Nelson, and other prominent members of the Liberal party, were attacked, and only the bayonets of a strong military guard prevented the storming of Government House where Lord Elgin and the ministers were assembled in council. Four days later, when the Governor-General drove into the city to receive an address from the Assembly, he narrowly escaped personal injury from showers of stones which shattered every panel of his carriage and severely wounded his brother and aide-de-camp, Colonel Bruce. The infamous and ruffianly violence of the infuriated "loyalists" had succeeded in

destroying the legislative halls and much other valuable property, and had come near to slaying the representative of the Queen. In one thing, however, they signally failed. They never shook the nerves of the high-souled man whom she had sent to administer in Canada the constitutional rule which, under her benignant sway, was enjoyed by the people of the British Isles. Throughout this crisis he displayed perfect calmness and courage, insisting in his despatches to the Home Government that no concessions should be made to violence, and declining to enter the capital with any military force, lest the rioters should seize an opportunity for causing bloodshed. He had his reward not only in the esteem of all good men then living and in posthumous renown, but in the instant and complete approval of his action by the highest authorities of his own country. When he expressed his readiness to resign office if such a course were deemed beneficial to the Queen's service, he was assured by Lord Grey, the minister in charge of colonial affairs, that he possessed the complete confidence of the Crown, and that the Queen begged him to retain his post. The matter was hotly debated in the House of Commons, where the Prime Minister, Lord John Russell, declared that the best judge of the questions to be referred to the Home Government was the colonial Governor, and that in the case of the Rebellion Losses Bill his judgment had been good. The seat of government for Canada was finally removed from Montreal, being transferred for the next two years to Toronto, with an arrangement that Quebec and Toronto should afterwards be alternate capitals every four years.

During the rest of his term of office, until he quitted Canada in December, 1854, Lord Elgin showed the same firmness, impartiality, and tact in the management of parties, alike resolved to let the country be governed by the expressed and deliberate will of a majority of the parliamentary electors, and to maintain the Imperial authority both against men who advocated annexation with the United States, and "philosophic" politicians who believed that the natural end of a constitutional monarchy was development into an independent republic. With the details of Canadian party-strife we have here no concern, and need only note the advances made in the prosperous path of constitutional freedom and of a sound fiscal policy. In 1850, the British North American colonies had entered on a new era, and

were almost arrived at political manhood. The Home Government now reserved only the right of disallowing any legislation opposed to Imperial interests, and, on the other hand, they assumed the burden of colonial defence. Canada was thus one of the most lightly taxed and favourably treated countries in the world, offering great inducements to the influx of capital and immigration, with results to her prosperity to be shortly noticed. The repeal of the Corn-laws had thrown British markets open to any surplus of Canadian grain. Foreign manufactures, as above noticed, were in 1847 allowed to enter the country at the same rate of duties as British-made goods. The repeal of the Navigation Laws, in 1849, removed the only remaining barrier of Protection, and the waters of the St. Lawrence were thrown open to the shipping of all nations. The competition of American vessels, which could now be registered in British ports, and share with the colonial shipping in the carrying-trade to and from the British Isles, caused a temporary Canadian depression, but energy, enterprise, and self-reliance soon restored matters for colonists who could now trade freely with any part of the world, import as they pleased, fix their own tariffs, and develop home-manufactures. In 1852, the growth of population caused an Act which raised the number of members of the Legislative Assembly from 84 to 130, equally divided between the provinces, Upper and Lower Canada, with a more equitable distribution of seats. In 1853 the Home Government made another concession to colonial feeling in formally surrendering, for decision by the Canadian Legislature, the long-standing question of the Clergy Reserves, with strict protection for the life-interests of existing claimants. In the following year the matter was finally settled by an Act which established the principle of religious equality. The lands were sold, and the proceeds, after provision made for existing claims, were divided amongst the municipalities, according to population, for purposes of education or local improvement. In the same session, an urgent matter, solely concerning Lower Canada, was also dealt with. Seigneurial tenure was abolished, with all its feudal absurdities and restrictions on agricultural enterprise, the seigneurs being bought out, with all their vested rights and privileges, partly at the cost of occupiers and partly at the charge of the State. Freehold tenure thus became the rule throughout the country, with great benefit to the progress of tillage and trade. In June, 1854, Lord Elgin crowned his career

of good service to the Canadas by concluding, with the Government of the United States, the long-mooted Reciprocity Treaty, which provided for the free interchange, between the two countries, of all products of the sea, the soil, the forest, and the mine. This arrangement, which was to continue in force for ten years from March, 1855, and then be terminable on twelve months' notice from either side, opened all the Canadian fisheries to Americans, and yielded to Canada the navigation of Lake Michigan. The waters of the St. Lawrence, the St. John, and the canals were also at the service of citizens of the United States on the same terms as for British subjects. The effect of this free-trade policy on Canadian commerce was such that, in the first year after the treaty came into operation, the value of her dealings with the States rose from a little over 1½ millions sterling to nearly thrice that amount.

At the close of 1854, Lord Elgin was followed by Sir Edmund Head, a gentleman who, after a distinguished career at Winchester School and at Oriel College, Oxford, succeeded his father in a baronetcy, served as a Poor-Law Commissioner, and held the lieutenant-governorship of New Brunswick during the same period that saw Lord Elgin ruling in Canada. A man of admirable attainments and taste in art, scholarship, and literature, Head was also possessed of considerable skill as an administrator, and Canada made good progress during his seven years' term of office. In 1855, the colonists who were claiming, and were soon to attain, an even larger measure of self-government, made provision for more efficient self-defence. A new Militia Act caused the enrolment of large volunteer-forces, and provided for the due organization, command, and equipment of the troops. The martial spirit of the country was shown, in Sir Edmund Head's time, by the raising of the Royal Canadians, or 100th Regiment of the line, the first colonial contribution to the British army, and a feeling of the utmost loyalty was displayed, both in words and in contributions to the Patriotic Fund, towards the mother-country during the Crimean War. In 1856, with the Parliament sitting at Toronto, the Reform party gained another victory, with a Conservative cabinet in office, by carrying a Bill which made the Legislative Council, the second or upper chamber, an elective body. It will be remembered that the constitution of 1841 had retained the members in the position of nominees of the Crown. Existing councillors were to keep their seats for life, but twelve

new members were to be biennially chosen, to hold office for the term of eight years. This elective character of the Council did not, however, prove to be an enduring element in the Canadian constitution. It was at this time that the most distinguished of Canadian statesmen attained a leading position in the Conservative party. Sir John Alexander Macdonald, according to the title which he earned, was descended from a Scottish Highland family, and, being born in Glasgow in January, 1815, went out, five years later, with his parents to Canada. The young emigrant was educated at the grammar-school of Kingston, in Ontario, and after brilliant success at the bar, he was chosen to represent that town in the Legislative Assembly, retaining the seat from 1844 until 1878. His combination of administrative skill with rare political sagacity and tact, knowledge of constitutional law, ability in debate, powerful eloquence, fascination of manner, ready and daring wit, old-fashioned courtesy, love of books, and power of abstraction, render him one of the most eminent men that the Empire has ever produced. The creation of the Dominion of Canada and of the Canadian Pacific Railway, largely due to his energetic support, were the principal achievements of the man who cherished a noble and inspiring faith in the destinies of the British people, and their immeasurable power for good in the world. His heretical notions on the subject of free-trade caused him to adopt, even against the productions of Great Britain, a policy of protection for native industries. Ranking as a Conservative statesman, Sir John Macdonald went beyond many of the self-styled Liberals and Radicals in his conciliatory attitude towards the French population of Canada. After holding the offices of Receiver-General (1847), Commissioner of Crown-lands (1847–48), and Attorney-General for Upper Canada (1854–56), he succeeded Sir Allan M'Nab as Conservative leader and premier in 1856, and was again Attorney-General from 1858 to 1862 and 1864 to 1867. In July of this last year he became the first premier of the new Dominion, holding the offices of Minister of Justice and Attorney-General of Canada until his resignation in 1873. Rising again to power in 1878, he remained one of the most prominent figures in Canadian politics until his death in 1891, when the Queen, who had previously bestowed on the great Canadian the honours of a privy-councillor, and of a Grand Cross of the Bath, raised his widow to the peerage as Baroness Macdonald of Earnscliffe.

After this brief digression in order to complete our account of the rising statesman of the period now under review, we note the adoption of Ottawa, in 1858, as the Canadian seat of government. The choice was the Queen's, exercised according to resolutions passed by both Canadian Houses, begging her to settle a much-disputed question, and it has been amply justified in the suitability of a city whose geographical position commands steam-traffic both by road and river, and is equally aloof from the local jealousies of Upper and Lower Canada. Among other notable men of this epoch were Mr. George Brown, born at Edinburgh in 1821, an energetic, eloquent, and indomitable reformer who advocated the principles of "representation by population", and of a federation; the late Sir Alexander T. Galt, the eminent financier, a son of John Galt, the Ayrshire novelist and friend of Byron; and Mr. (afterwards Sir) George Cartier, who formed, with Macdonald as premier, the Macdonald-Cartier ministry in November, 1857. Cartier, a lineal descendant of the nephews of Jacques Cartier, the discoverer of Canada, was a distinguished lawyer of high character, an excellent speaker both in English and French, and vastly popular with the French Canadians. The session of 1859 was made useful by the codification of the statute-law of Upper and Lower Canada. The following year was remarkable for the visit of the Prince of Wales, who received a most enthusiastic welcome, and brought the progress of Canada before the world in a striking fashion when he drove the last rivet of the great Victoria Railway Bridge at Montreal, and laid the foundation-stone of the new Parliament buildings at Ottawa.

In October, 1861, Sir Edmund Head was succeeded as Governor-General by Viscount Monck, an Irish peer, who had sat for some years in the House of Commons, and had held office under Lord Palmerston. He proved himself to be a truly constitutional ruler, perfectly neutral in reference to contending political parties, and he is regarded as the man who finally established the true relation of the colonial Governor to the colonial constitution. The question of the federal union of our North American states was now prominent. As far back as 1849, a "North American League" held a meeting at Toronto in favour of confederation. In 1854, the Legislative Assembly of Nova Scotia had passed resolutions urging a closer connection of the British provinces. Three years later, the Nova

Scotians pressed the matter on Mr. Labouchere, the Colonial Secretary. The movement in Canada was closely connected with the Upper Canadian demand for representation according to numbers. We shall see from figures hereafter given that the upper province had grown in population far more rapidly than the lower, and it seemed to be unfair that, with a considerable excess in numbers, and contributing the larger part of the public revenue, Upper Canada should have only an equal parliamentary representation, and an equal amount expended on her needful public works. The jealous feeling of the Lower Canadians, backed by the solid vote of their representatives in the Legislative Assembly, obstructed the efforts of the Upper Canadian members, and the evenly-balanced condition of parties brought about five changes of ministry between May, 1862, and June, 1864.

It became clear that the only way of issue from the difficulty was a federal union, and a coalition-government, including Brown, Macdonald, and Galt, was formed with the object of such a settlement. The Governments of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island had appointed delegates to meet at Charlottetown, in Prince Edward Island, in September, 1864, in order to arrange the terms of a legislative union of those maritime provinces. The Canadian Government, at their own request, were allowed to be there represented, and eight delegates, including Macdonald, Brown, Cartier, and Galt, went down the St. Lawrence to put forward the views of the River provinces. The smaller scheme was thenceforth merged in the larger, and it was arranged that a conference should be held, in the following month, at Quebec. On October 10th, under the presidency of Sir E. P. Taché, the Canadian premier, 33 leading men from the six provinces began a session of eighteen days' deliberation, with closed doors, in a chamber of the Parliament buildings. The Canadas were represented by twelve members of all shades of political opinion; New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island each sent seven; Nova Scotia, five; and Newfoundland, two. This historic gathering was one of peculiar interest and importance. Side by side, with a common country and a common cause, sate in peaceful debate, "beneath the shadow of Cape Diamond, on the site of the old castle of St. Louis, with the broad St. Lawrence stretching away in front, the Plains of Abraham in sight, and the St. Charles wind-

ing its silvery course through scenes replete with the memories of old France", the descendants of those men of two great and gallant races who had there fought, in opposing ranks, in days now above a century past, beneath the lilies of France and the cross of St. George. Chosen for their work by parliaments of popular election, they were assembled, with the sanction of their sovereign, to lay the foundations of a new state in which legislative union for great common interests should exist along with provincial autonomy, or the local self-government which could best find remedies for local evils. They were to decide whether the vast region in which they dwelt should be consolidated into "a State combining within its area all the elements of national greatness, providing for the security of its component parts, and contributing to the strength and stability of the empire, or whether the several provinces should remain in their present fragmentary and isolated condition, comparatively powerless for mutual aid, and incapable of undertaking their proper share of imperial responsibility". In the arduous work of harmonizing conflicting interests, and removing local difficulties, the members of this conference were sustained by an outburst of loyal enthusiasm, kindled by the thought of unification, in which political feuds were for the time forgotten under the ennobling and elevating influence of the national feeling which pervaded all ranks of the community. The close of the sittings was followed by public banquets to the delegates at Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, and other towns, where the leading men of every class and profession vied in showing honour to the guests. As the general outline of the scheme became known, it was received in Canada with almost unanimous favour as containing the germ of a new and vigorous national life. In the words of Dr. Withrow, an able Canadian historian, "the bonds of a common allegiance to the sovereign, and of common sympathies and interests, were recognized. The restraints of local impediments upon free intercolonial trade were felt to be increasingly irksome. The differences of productions and industries in the several provinces made their union seem all the more necessary for the greater prosperity of all. The wheat-fields and lumber interests of Canada needed, and were needed by, the fisheries and mines and shipping of the maritime provinces. The magnificent waterways of the west furnished unrivalled facilities for commercial relations with the east; but the

lack of a winter seaport made an intercolonial railway, and the harbours of St. John and Halifax, necessary to the development of Canadian trade. A federal central government also promised to lift politics above the level of a jealous conflict between parties into that of a patriotic ambition for the prosperity of the whole country, and for the development of a vigorous national life; and the local legislatures offered a guarantee for self-government in the domestic affairs of each province. The long-continued demand of Upper Canada for representation by population would be granted in the constitution of the central parliament, and the jealousy of the French population of Lower Canada for their religion, language, and laws, would be appeased by their numerical representation in their local legislature."

Such were the views on confederation generally held in the two Canadas, and the seventy-two resolutions passed at the Quebec Conference, and forming the basis of the subsequent Confederation Act, were agreed to by both Houses in March, 1865, when they voted an address to the Queen, praying her to submit to the Imperial Parliament a measure "for the purpose of uniting the provinces" in accordance therewith. There was, however, for some time considerable opposition in the maritime provinces. In New Brunswick, at a general election, all candidates who had been Quebec delegates from that province were rejected at the polls, and a strong anti-confederation party existed in Nova Scotia. The powerful support of the cause of confederation by leading Conservatives and Liberals at home, and a change of feeling in New Brunswick, expressed at a new election, with financial concessions to Nova Scotian opponents, issued in the despatch to London of 16 delegates, in December, 1866, representing Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. The result of the Westminster Palace Conference was seen in the passing, in March, 1867, of the "British North America Act", whereby, from July 1st, the above provinces were to form one Dominion, under the name of Canada. That day, as "Dominion Day", is now observed as a public holiday throughout the whole of the Queen's dominions on the mainland of North America and on the Pacific coast. In order to describe the existing form of government in the Canadian Dominion, we may so far anticipate matters as to state that, in accordance with provision made in the Act of 1867, the Confedera-

DOMINION OF
CANADA
ARCTIC OCEAN
BAFFIN BAY
GREENLAND
DAVIS STRAIT
HUDSON STRAIT
HUDSON BAY
JAMES BAY
LABRADOR
UNGAVA
QUEBEC
ONTARIO
MANITOBA
ASSINIBOIA
SASKATCHEWAN
ALBERTA
ATHABASCA
KEEWATIN
MACKENZIE
YUKON
BRITISH COLUMBIA
FRANKLIN
NEW BRUNSWICK
NOVA SCOTIA
PR. EDWARD I.
NEWFOUNDLAND
GULF OF ST LAWRENCE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Banks Land
Melville Sound
Pr Albert Land
Victoria Land
Boothia Penin.
Gulf of Boothia
Melville Peninsula
Fox Channel
Fox Land
Southampton Island
Cumberland Sound
North Devon
Barrow Str
Lancaster Sd
Port Churchill
York
Portland Promontory
LAKE WINNIPEG
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE HURON
LAKE MICHIGAN
ONTARIO
ERIE
Winnipeg
Montreal
Quebec
Halifax
C. Sable
Portland
Boston
New York
Albany
Buffalo
Toronto
Detroit
Chicago
Milwaukee
Minneapolis
St Paul
Sioux City
Duluth
MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA
MONTANA
IDAHO
WASHINGTON
MAINE
UNITED STATES
Longitude West 95 from Greenwich
British Miles
Kilometres
Heights in English Feet
Railways
Note
Newfoundland with Labrador
still form a British Colony separate
from the Dominion of Canada

tion, starting with the four provinces Quebec (or Lower Canada), Ontario (or Upper Canada), Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, was joined in 1870 by the new province called Manitoba. In 1871, British Columbia (with Vancouver Island), and in 1873, Prince Edward Island, were admitted. Three years later, the North-West Territories became a Province of the Dominion, and in 1880, by an Order in Council, all British provinces in North America (other than Newfoundland), not previously included in Canada, were annexed to the Dominion.

The Canadian constitution was without precedent in the history of the British Empire in so far that it interwove federal principles with monarchical institutions, and strove to combine methods of government adopted from the constitutions both of the mother-country and of the United States or of Switzerland. Its foundation was a great political act which carried into practice the eloquent words of Burke uttered in his historical speech on "Conciliation with America", when he insisted on likeness of privileges and equality of political rights for colonists as essential to the unity and cohesion of the empire. Monarchical forms and supreme authority in Great Britain became co-existent with the free working of democracy in the Dominion, and the experience of nearly a generation seems to display the successful grafting of a new growth upon the old stem. The Governor-General, with a salary of £10,000 a-year, is assisted by a body called the Queen's Privy Council, consisting of fourteen members, acting as ministers or heads of departments, or, in one or two cases, "without portfolio", who must all be maintained in office by a parliamentary majority. In the Governor-General, as the direct representative of the British sovereign, lie the executive power of the law, the appointment of Provincial Lieutenant-Governors and of judges, the chief command of the military and naval forces, the assent needful to turn "Bills" into "Acts", and the right of commuting sentences passed in courts of justice. The Parliament consists of two chambers, the Senate and the House of Commons. The Senate is a body replacing the former Legislative Council, as it existed, before 1856, in its non-elective form. It resembles what our House of Lords would be if it consisted of life-peers only, all at least 30 years of age, removable for misconduct, and nominated by the Crown as representative, in fixed numbers, of special dis-

tricts. In other words, the Canadian Senate is composed of members appointed by the Governor-General for the several provinces, with the proviso that each member must reside in the province for and from which he is summoned by writ issued under the great seal of Canada. He must also have a qualification consisting of personal or real property, clear of debt, to the value of at least 4000 dollars (or £800) in the province for which he holds his seat. The Speaker of the Senate is appointed by the Crown, and may vote on all questions, with only a negative vote when the House is equally divided. The number of senators, which has varied from time to time, both in the total and in the proportion for each province, according to changes in the population as disclosed by decennial census, now amounts to 81, namely, 24 for Ontario, 24 for Quebec, 10 each from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, 4 each from Prince Edward Island and Manitoba, 3 from British Columbia, and 2 from the North-West Territories. The House of Commons, which has also been adjusted in accordance with changes in population, may sit for five years, and is now composed of 213 members, namely, 92 for Ontario, 65 for Quebec, 20 for Nova Scotia, 14 for New Brunswick, 7 for Manitoba, 6 for British Columbia, 5 for Prince Edward Island, and 4 for the North-West Territories. The franchise for the whole Dominion is uniform, except in the North-West Territories, and consists of a vote given to every male of full age with a moderate qualification as owner, tenant, or occupier of real property, or as receiver of income from earnings or investments, or as son of a farmer or any other owner of real property in value sufficient to qualify two persons, or as a fisherman owning real property and gear together to the value of £30. In the Territories, every male of full age, not an Indian or alien, may vote after a residence of 12 months. Voting is by ballot, except in the Territories. The members both of the Senate and of the House of Commons receive pay for attendance and for travelling expenses. This House elects its own Speaker, voting only when the House is equally divided; debates may be in either English or French, but the proceedings are recorded in both languages. All money-bills (measures affecting taxation or revenue) must be recommended by a message from the Governor-General, and can be introduced only in the House of Commons. The Dominion or federal Parliament deals with all matters concerning

the collective interests of all the Provinces, such as the public debt and property; expenditure and public loans; customs and excise-duties; trade and commerce; navigation, shipping, and fisheries; the naval, military, and postal services; banking, currency, coinage, insolvency, and all other monetary and financial affairs of general importance; patents, copyright, the census, statistics; marriage, divorce, and criminal procedure; the provision of salaries for civil and other officers of the Dominion; lighthouses and harbours, beacons, buoys, and quarantine; naturalization, aliens, Indians and Indian Reserves; public works, railways, and canals.

It is in the possession, on the part of each Province, of a separate parliament and administration for its local affairs, that the Canadian constitution resembles that of the United States. For each Province of the Dominion the Governor-General appoints a Lieutenant-Governor to hold office for five years. He is assisted by an Executive Council composed of the chief officials who possess the confidence of the provincial Assembly. Bills passed by the provincial legislatures require the assent of the Lieutenant-Governor, and may be disallowed within a year by the Governor-General. The local legislatures in Quebec, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island have each two chambers, an elected Assembly which may sit for four years, and a Legislative Council nominated by the Crown. In New Brunswick, Ontario, Manitoba, British Columbia, and the North-West Territories there is only one chamber, the Legislative Assembly; the number of members in the elective provincial chambers varies from 94 in Ontario to 26 in the Territories. In all the Provinces the ministry is responsible to the Assembly, and in the Territories the executive, composed of four members, is also chosen by that body. The matters within the scope and control of the provincial legislatures include direct taxation within the Province; local loans, public works and improvements; municipal affairs; education, justice, local institutions for criminal affairs and charitable purposes; licenses, and the appointment and maintenance of provincial officers. Before leaving this subject, we may note that the acting portion of the Privy Council or Ministry, of the Dominion at present includes a Premier (also President of Council), with a salary of £1600 yearly, and the following 11 chief officials, or heads of departments, each paid £1400 per annum:—a Minister of Trade and Commerce; of

Finance; of Marine and Fisheries; of Railways and Canals; of Public Works; of Militia and Defence; of the Interior; of Agriculture; a Postmaster-General; a Secretary of State; and a Minister of Justice (and Attorney-General). There are two members of the Ministry without any specified official duties. Lord Monck became the first Governor-General of the newly-constituted Dominion, and Sir John Alexander Macdonald, with Cartier and Galt among his colleagues, was the first Premier. Before proceeding with the general history of the Dominion, we must retrace our steps to observe the material progress made up to this time.

The growth of population, mainly due to immigrants from the British Isles, was rapid and continuous. Political enfranchisement, followed by the reign of peace and order, allowed the expansion and prosperity due to unchecked human enterprise and effort. In the lack of precise figures, the population of Upper and Lower Canada, in 1841, may be estimated at about 1,100,000. In 1851, these two provinces had over 1,840,000, Upper Canada now, with 952,000, for the first time showing a greater population than Lower Canada, with 890,000. Ten years more roll away, and Upper and Lower Canada contain, in 1861, above 2½ millions, of which the upper province has nearly 1,400,000. At the same time, New Brunswick just exceeded ¼ million; Nova Scotia had 331,000 and Prince Edward Island 81,000, making a grand total, for all the provinces, of 3,171,000. Another decade passes, and in 1871 the Dominion (Quebec, Ontario, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia) contains nearly 3½ millions, while Prince Edward Island has 94,000, and the new provinces of British Columbia and Manitoba respectively show over 36,000 and nearly 19,000. During the forty years between 1831 and 1871, the annual increase had averaged 70,000. The great strides made in education are noticed in another part of this record. The railway era of Canada fairly began in 1850, when Lady Elgin turned the first sod of the Northern Railway, an event followed, in 1851, by the adoption, under the Colonial control of the Post-Office, of the uniform charge of threepence per half-ounce for letters. In the next year, the Grand Trunk Railway, connecting the tidal waters of the St. Lawrence with the great lakes, was taken in hand, and the Great Western Railway was planned to join the United States systems at the Niagara and Detroit rivers. At the first of the

great International Exhibitions, the Crystal Palace display in Hyde Park, London, in 1851, Canadian products made a creditable show. The commerce of Quebec and Montreal was greatly developed through the establishment, in 1852, of speedy and regular steam-communication with the British Isles in the famous Allan line of vessels. This enterprise, aided by the Canadian Government, was mainly due to the energy of Mr (afterwards Sir) Hugh Allan, born at Saltcoats, in Ayrshire, in 1810. His father was a successful trader between the Clyde and Montreal. The son went out to Canada in 1826, and having inherited the sire's ability and liking for the shipping business, he created, with his brothers, a large shipping interest at Montreal. The fortnightly steamers soon ran weekly, and long before his death in 1882, Sir Hugh's firm were possessors of one of the largest steam-fleets afloat, as well as of a great number of sailing-vessels. The transaction of business was greatly facilitated by the introduction and extension of the electric telegraph, culminating in 1866 in the cable-communication with Europe. The second London Exhibition, in 1862, gave Canada another opportunity, well employed, of displaying her valuable products from the field and the orchard, the forest and the mine. The growth of municipal institutions, creating an interest in the local direction of public affairs, greatly fostered improvement and enterprise. The establishment, in 1852, of the Municipal Loan Fund for Upper Canada, afterwards extended to the lower Province, enabled the local authorities to raise money for works of great and permanent value in the form of bridges, roads, and railways, and the introduction of capital and its profitable use were promoted in the formation of joint-stock companies and the development of banking. In 1854, the customs-duties, at the average rate of 12 per cent, reached nearly 5 millions sterling, and the total public revenue exceeded 6 millions, with an expenditure of only a little more than 4 millions.

The country, like all other great and civilized communities, where the very existence of highly developed methods of locomotion and production includes the increased possibility of mischief, had her share of disastrous events. Apart from destructive conflagrations in town and forest, to be elsewhere noticed, we may here refer to the first railway-accident that ever happened in Canada, a tragedy which slew about 70 persons, on March 12th,

1856, when a train on its course from Toronto to Hamilton, on the north-west shore of Lake Ontario, plunged through an open draw-bridge in the Desjardens Canal. A still worse fatality came on June 26th, 1857, on the lower course of the St. Lawrence, when the steamer *Montreal*, carrying Scottish emigrants, took fire opposite Cape Rouge, near Quebec, and burned to the water's edge with the loss of 250 lives. The assassination of the Hon. Thomas D'Arcy McGee, on April 7th, 1868, was perpetrated at an early hour in the morning by a Fenian fanatic, Patrick Whelan, who shot the eloquent statesman as he entered his hotel on returning from the House of Commons at Ottawa. Mr. McGee, a former Irish patriot, who had shared in the schemes of Mitchel and Meagher elsewhere related, became member for West Montreal in 1858, and held office in several Canadian ministries. He was one of the ablest and most earnest advocates of confederation, representing his adopted country both at the Charlottetown and the Quebec conferences, in 1864. His death was nationally mourned, and the victim was honoured by a grand public funeral. The arrest, trial, and conviction of the assassin sent him finally to the gallows.

In foreign affairs, the United States, as a great and powerful neighbour with a common frontier extending over thousands of miles, is the only country in the world that has been, or is likely to be, in any intimate relations with Canada. We may here take a brief review of matters in this direction subsequent to the Union Act of 1841. The conclusion of the Reciprocity Treaty in 1854 had, as already hinted, a vast effect on international trade. The products of Canada in cattle and corn at once acquired a higher value, and her ship-builders, millers, and manufacturers in various lines, felt the change alike with the breeders of stock, the growers of wool, and the tillers of the soil. In the railway era, on the eastern seaboard, Halifax and St. John became connected with Portland, in the State of Maine, and thereby with the railway-lines of the United States in that portion of her vast dominions. In 1857, a commercial panic in the States acted with severe effect on the financial interests of Canada, a state of affairs which was aggravated by a comparative failure of the wheat-crop, and by over-speculation in imports, stocks, and land-enterprises. The outbreak of the Civil War in the States, between "North" and "South",

"Federals" and "Confederates", in April, 1861, aroused sympathy in Canada mainly for the side which sought in battle the maintenance of the Union. It is estimated that during the struggle about 50,000 Canadians enlisted in the Northern armies, while it is certain that few, in comparison, took part with the South. Passing over the occasion when hostilities appeared imminent in connection with the seizure of the Confederate commissioners from the British mail-steamer *Trent* in November, 1861, a transaction dealt with elsewhere, we find that Canada derived much indirect advantage from the civil warfare in the neighbouring country. In her fisheries she was, for the time, relieved of American competition, and her stock-owners and corn-growers had an increased sale for their products in regions where so many men had laid aside the ploughshare for the sword. There was also a great demand for Canadian horses as remounts for the Union cavalry and in the artillery, and the general prosperity of Canada was attended by rapid recovery from indebtedness due to rashness and extravagance in the past, by a diminution in the profits of money-lenders and the earnings of lawyers, and by a marked decrease in the amount of crime. Ample employment, high wages, and the departure of turbulent elements to the armies beyond the frontier, had a large share in this condition of affairs. The colonists, in their hour of sunshine, did not forget to relieve the gloom of Lancashire by generous contributions to the Cotton Famine Fund.

Towards the close of the Civil War in the States, some ill-will arose between the Northern or Federal government and their supporters, on the one hand, and a portion of the Canadian people on the other. This was mainly due to the lawless violence of Southern or Confederate refugees on Canadian soil, and partly to ill-judged action of Canadian authorities and to expressions of Canadian sympathy for the falling Confederate cause. Some of the refugees, regardless of international law and of their duty to the neutral country whose hospitality they enjoyed, or perhaps anxious to embroil the Federal government with Great Britain, made their place of refuge the starting-point of raids across the frontier. In September, 1864, some of these desperate men seized two American steamers on Lake Erie, with the design of rescuing Confederate prisoners on Johnson's Island, and of destroying the shipping on the lake. The failure of this enterprise was followed

a few weeks later, by an infamous and successful attack on the banks of St. Albans, in the State of Vermont. The robbers, about a score in number, after adding murder to their crime of lawless plunder, escaped back to Canada with booty to the value of over 230,000 dollars, or about £46,000. Fourteen of the men were arrested, but were discharged by a judge at Montreal, and the just indignation of the Federals was heightened by the illegal surrender to these ruffians of 90,000 dollars of the stolen money. The Canadian Government afterwards repaid this sum, and, somewhat late, took measures to prevent these attacks on friendly territory by strong frontier-patrols and by an Alien Act permitting the summary arrest of suspicious persons. At the close of the war, the assassination of the noble-hearted President Lincoln stirred to abhorrence and grief all the best feeling of Canadians, and expressions of national sympathy were made in the words uttered by speakers at crowded meetings, and in the tolling bells, lowered flags, and other emblems of mourning which marked the day when Lincoln was borne to his grave. In 1866, the United States Government declined to renew the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, being partly influenced by a hostile section of Congress who hoped to damage the trade of Canada so seriously as to cause her to seek for annexation with her powerful neighbour. The effect of this proceeding differed greatly from the calculations made in the States. It was they, and not Canada, that suffered from the change by which the States, in face of the vast debt incurred in the Civil War, imposed a high customs-tariff on Canadian products as well as on goods coming in from other countries. Before the termination of the treaty in March, the Canadian dealers sent all their surplus live stock and farm-produce pouring over the frontier, to the great profit of the owners of railways and shipping that, with all their resources, could scarcely meet the demand for transport. When the protection-policy came into operation, the New England manufacturers of woollen and worsted suffered from the higher price of Canadian long-staple wool; the brewers of New York and Pennsylvania felt the loss of cheap Canadian barley; the ship-builders and other users of wood had to pay enhanced prices for Canadian lumber; the workers in the States were wronged in the matter of the cheap provisions which Canada had once so lavishly supplied. The spirit of nationality and patriotism was aroused in all the Canadian provinces, and,

quickly rallying from the first shock to commerce, their merchants, aided by a large marine, sought and found new markets in the West Indies, in South America, and beyond the Atlantic. The manufactures of the country were developed in the effort made to dispense with the purchase of goods from the States, and the measure which had been devised for harm resulted in great and permanent advantage.

The neighbourhood of the States was, however, seriously felt through the action of the Irish element in her population. The Fenians, whose abortive efforts in Ireland and England during this period have been already described, aimed a blow at Great Britain through her North American colonies. The thousands of Irishmen disbanded at the peace between North and South supplied gangs of armed invaders of Canada, and there were shameful instances of connivance and aid on the part of United States officials, moved by a desire to retain the Irish vote in political contests. Local organizations in the frontier-towns raised large funds for the purchase, at a cheap rate, of the arms, equipments, and military stores thrown upon the market at the close of the Civil War; prominent citizens, in speeches delivered at public meetings, hounded on the Fenians in the planned invasion of an unoffending neighbour; and bands of intending assailants were openly paraded and drilled. We shall not here give historical importance to any leaders in this wicked scheme by recording their names. St. Patrick's Day, March 17th, was announced as the date of invasion, and the Canadian Government, with a prompt reply to this insolent threat, called out 10,000 volunteers in an appeal which, within 24 hours, produced 4000 men in arms beyond the number summoned. The frontier was manned at the most open points, and St. Patrick's Day passed off without any alarm. In April, on the New Brunswick border, some "invaders" decamped at the mere sight of a few regulars and volunteers, and, after stealing a custom-house flag, returned to boast of capturing the British colours, a feat which, when the truth became known, raised peals of laughter through the North American continent. In the middle of May, as nothing serious seemed to be coming, most of the Canadian volunteers were dismissed to their homes, and then the Fenians found their chance of action. Attacks on Canada were arranged for various points, the main effort being made on the Niagara frontier. About 1500

ruffians from Buffalo, Cincinnati, Detroit, Chicago, St. Louis, and other towns crossed the border-line on June 1st, and, after doing some damage to the track of the Grand Trunk Railway, advanced towards the Welland Canal, as if with the intention of destroying the locks. The Canadian volunteers, on the first news, rushed to arms, and a thousand men, with 750 regulars and a battery of field-guns, took post at Chippewa, near Niagara Falls, while another body, with men of the Rifle Brigade, guarded the Lake Erie entrance to the Welland Canal. In the fighting which ensued, the Fenians, at one point, were repulsed with loss; at another, a small force of volunteers, overpowered by tenfold numbers, lost forty men as prisoners. The commander of the invading force was bitterly disappointed at meeting with a stout resistance from loyal Canadians instead of the expected sympathy and aid, and on June 3rd he withdrew his men, leaving behind his dead and wounded, his pickets, and all his Canadian prisoners. The Canadians were, by this time, again thoroughly aroused, and every menaced point was guarded in force, while the railway depôts had their sidings filled with trains of wagons laden with artillery, shot, and shell, ready to start in case of need. Wherever the frontier was crossed by the Fenians, they were promptly driven back before they could do much damage to property. The Government of the United States, moved to action by the vigorous remonstrance of the British minister at Washington, at last interfered in behalf of international law and order, and the able and honest General Meade, the victor over the noble and chivalrous Lee at the decisive battle of Gettysburg in 1863, seized a large quantity of Fenian arms and stores at Ogdensburg, on the St. Lawrence, above Montreal, and disarmed and dispersed a body of men near St. Albans, after their flight from the Canadian forces. So ended the Fenian scare, with utter disgrace to its promoters; with some loss of life and great expense to the country thus wantonly assailed. The brief campaign, however, had its compensating good in revealing certain defects of the military system, and the matter was of real value in the impetus given to patriotic feeling, and in the demonstrated readiness of Canadians to defend their country against foreign aggression.

In resuming the general history of the Dominion after the Act of Confederation, we note that in November, 1868, Lord Monck was succeeded, as Governor-General, by Lord Lisgar, an able

man better known as Sir John Young, who was Chief Secretary for Ireland from 1852 to 1855, and Governor of New South Wales from 1861 until his appointment to Canada, where his peerage was earned. The increase of territory in 1869 by the cession, through purchase, of the Hudson Bay Company's lands, and the Red River Rebellion of the same year, are elsewhere noticed. When the Washington Treaty of 1871, concerning the *Alabama* claims and other matters in dispute between the United States and Great Britain, was concluded, the fisheries of both Canada and the States were again thrown open to either country, a large money-compensation being paid to Canada in consideration of the superior value of her fisheries. Thus was settled a question which had assumed a threatening aspect in consequence of American encroachments on Canadian waters that had been legally closed to them since the annulling of the Reciprocity Treaty. The claims of the Dominion against the States on account of losses and expense incurred through the Fenian raids were abandoned by the Canadian Government at the request of the British authorities, who guaranteed, as compensation, a Dominion loan of 3½ millions of dollars (£700,000), and continued their guarantee of a previous loan for fortifications.

At the close of the year, Mr. Edward Blake, a gentleman of good Irish family, became premier of Ontario for a short time. Called to the Bar in 1856, he entered the first Dominion Parliament (1867), and at once came to the front as an able speaker both in debate and at public meetings. It was an unique event in Canadian history when, at the general election of 1892, Mr. Blake entered the Imperial Parliament as M.P. (Nationalist) for South Longford, an Irish county constituency. In February, 1893, he delivered in the House of Commons a brilliant and powerful maiden speech in favour of Home Rule, on the first reading of Mr. Gladstone's Bill.

In the next year (1872), the Earl of Dufferin (afterwards Marquis of Dufferin and Ava), assumed the office of Governor-General. This brilliant statesman and diplomatist has been already before us as British Commissioner in Syria (1860), and as Viceroy of India (1884–88), since which last date he has held the posts of ambassador at Rome and Paris. His keen estimate of a constitutional ruler's rightful position in Canada after the establishment of self-government to its full extent is shown in his

witty comparison of himself to the man in a fustian jacket who may be seen in an engine-room tending the complicated piece of work, and going about with a little tin oil-can with a long spout, pouring in a drop here and there to secure the easy working of the huge machine. The new Governor-General's genial courtesy, charming oratory, and devotion to every interest of the country committed to his charge, quickly won for him a very high degree of popular favour. Canadian finance was in a very prosperous condition, the budget of 1873 showing a large surplus. The Governor-General and Lady Dufferin made a summer "progress" through the maritime provinces, everywhere winning the hearts of the people and receiving the most loyal demonstrations. In November, Sir John Macdonald and his cabinet resigned office in connection with charges of corrupt conduct concerning a charter granted to a company for making a railway to the Pacific coast. A new ministry was formed by another Scot, Mr. Mackenzie, born near Dunkeld in 1822, educated at the parish-school, left an orphan at the age of fourteen, earning his bread by the labour of his hands, diligent in self-improvement, emigrating to Canada in 1842, and there becoming noted as the advocate of liberal principles in the struggle for responsible government. A general election, conducted for the first time with simultaneous voting, gave Mr. Mackenzie and his colleagues a very large majority. Subsequent legislation aimed at the suppression of corrupt practices at elections, and included measures for reorganizing the militia and for establishing the Royal Military College at Kingston. In the summer of that year (1874) Lord Dufferin made an extended tour among the upper lakes, and paid a brief visit to Chicago, where he was well received by the citizens of the States. In 1875, a Supreme Court of Appeal for the Dominion was established; the postal service was improved; and a convention with the States gave increased postal facilities with a large reduction of charges. During the summer, the Governor-General returned home on a visit, and made a striking address on behalf of the vast territory beyond the Atlantic before the Canada Club in London.

The general progress of the country was satisfactory. The interest taken in education was shown in New Brunswick by heated disputes, in and out of Parliament, concerning a Common-School Act of the provincial legislature (1871) making assessment

compulsory, and requiring all schools to be non-sectarian in order to be entitled to aid from the public funds. The British North America Act of 1867 had granted to provincial legislatures the exclusive right to deal with education, provided that nothing were enacted to limit existing privileges. The Catholic minority therefore insisted on their right to legislative grants for their denominational schools. The Privy Council of the Dominion declined to advise the Governor-General to disallow the Common-School Act of the New Brunswick legislature, and the Minister of Justice, Sir John Macdonald, contended that the jurisdiction of that body was supreme in the matter. The Privy Council in England sustained this view, and in 1875 a large majority of the electors in Prince Edward Island also supported the non-sectarian system. In the early summer of 1876, the Intercolonial Railway, from Quebec to Halifax, was opened, forming a new bond of union between the maritime and western provinces, also much lessening the time of transit for European mails. Vigorous progress was now being made with public works, including new constructions and excavations on the Welland and St. Lawrence Canals. At the United States Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, the Canadian department gave abundant evidence of the skill and energy of the colonists, and revealed to multitudes the extent and magnificence of the Dominion resources. Ontario was foremost in the variety, richness, and beauty of her show, and won special admiration for the display made in her educational department. In August of that year, Lord and Lady Dufferin visited British Columbia, and, received with the utmost enthusiasm, were greatly impressed by the magnificent scenery, and by the extent and importance of the natural resources of the province. In vindicating the policy of the Canadian Government concerning the Pacific Railway then under consideration, the Governor-General's tact was such as at once to allay local irritation and to win the special thanks at home of the Colonial Secretary. In many ways, the Dominion was going forward to a grand and prosperous future. The growth of business demanded and received extensions of the postal system. Montreal and Toronto were raising noble public buildings and wholesale stores. Railways were being carried through Northern Ontario; new townships were everywhere being opened up and settled. In 1877, a check to financial prosperity,

caused by commercial and manufacturing depression, was shown by a deficit of nearly two million dollars in the budget of the Dominion Parliament, and Sir John Macdonald, leader of the Opposition, urged his protection-policy in a motion which demanded a readjustment of tariff in order to benefit and foster the agricultural, manufacturing, and mining interests. At that time, however, this policy was defeated by a large majority. The movement in favour of temperance in alcoholic drinks made much progress at this time, both in the way of voluntary total-abstinence pledges and in the carrying of bye-laws, in many municipalities of Ontario and Quebec, controlling and restraining the trade. In the course of the summer, Lord Dufferin and his wife visited Manitoba, whence large amounts of wheat were now coming into the European markets. His excellent addresses at Winnipeg and elsewhere delighted all hearers, and set forth in glowing terms the future which awaited a region of such vast extent and capabilities as the Dominion of Canada. In the session of 1878, an amendment moved by Sir John Macdonald in favour of "a judicious readjustment of the tariff" was again defeated, and a Temperance Act enabled municipalities to prohibit, by popular vote, all sale of alcoholic liquors within their limits. At the general election of 1878, the existing government, Mr. Mackenzie's, was utterly defeated, and a new ministry was formed by Sir John Macdonald. In October, amidst universal demonstrations of esteem and regret, the Earl and Countess of Dufferin quitted Canada.

The new Governor-General, the Marquis of Lorne, eldest son of the Duke of Argyle, born in 1845, was a man of high culture and character, distinguished by his marriage, in 1871, to the accomplished Princess Louise, fourth daughter of the Queen—the first modern instance of the marriage of the daughter of a reigning sovereign of Great Britain to a subject. He had sat in the House of Commons for Argyleshire, and had travelled in Canada, the States, and the West Indies, thus bringing much knowledge of men and affairs to bear upon the discharge of his new duties. The Canadians were pleased that their sovereign was to be represented in their midst by personages so near the throne, and the progress of the vice-regal party from Quebec to Montreal and Ottawa in the last week of November was a fine display of loyalty and pomp. On February 13th, 1879, the

Marquis of Lorne, with the Princess as a spectator, opened the parliamentary session at Ottawa in a speech which, amongst other matters, congratulated the country on the success of the Canadian exhibitors at the Paris Exhibition of the previous year, and on the development of trade with France and Spain and their respective colonies. In regard to legislation, Sir John Macdonald at last had his way concerning his protection-tariff. Mr. Mackenzie's amendment was defeated by a majority of more than two to one, and the hostile criticism of British and Canadian free-traders was aroused by the "national policy" which now levied higher customs-duties in order to protect the manufacturing industries of Canada at the expense of the mass of Canadian consumers. The long-proposed and much-debated Canadian Pacific Railway, to be hereafter described, now came to the front as a practical scheme, and on October 21st, 1880, the contract for the construction of the line was signed. The position of Canada in reference to the mother-country, as "trustee for the Empire at large", to quote Sir John Macdonald, "of half the continent of North America", was now recognized in the appointment of a High Commissioner for Canada as resident-representative of the Dominion in London. Sir Alexander Galt was the first man to hold this important post, taking charge of the financial interests of the Dominion, and communicating directly and fully with the Colonial Office on all points that concern her interests. The census of 1881 showed that the whole population of British North America was nearly approaching 4½ millions, of whom Ontario contained close upon 2 millions; Quebec, 1,359,000; Nova Scotia, 440,000; New Brunswick, 321,000; Prince Edward Island, 108,000; Manitoba, 65,000; British Columbia, 49,000; and the North-West Territories, 56,000. On May 2nd, the Canadian Pacific Railway was actually begun in the work of pick and spade, after heated discussions in and out of Parliament, Sir Charles Tupper, the Minister of Railways, who supported the conditions of the contract, being stoutly opposed by Mr. Blake, who denounced them as ruinous to the country, in the lavish grant of lands to the contracting company. During the summer of this year, the Governor-General, Lord Lorne, made a tour through Manitoba and the great North-West, travelling to and from the Rocky Mountains in a journey which exceeded 8000 miles by rail, wagon-road, or trail, and water. This distant

part of the Dominion was now made better known in Great Britain than ever before in the pen and pencil contributions supplied to London illustrated papers by gentlemen who accompanied his Excellency. At the opening of the session of 1882, the Governor-General was able to congratulate the country on the flourishing condition of agriculture, manufactures, and trade, and on the increase of revenue attributed to the fiscal policy of the ministry, sustained by a very large majority at the general election of December, 1881. The Canada Pacific Railway was making rapid progress, and a great tide of immigration was flowing towards Manitoba.

In October, 1883, a new Governor-General arrived in the person of the Marquis of Lansdowne, fifth of his name and title, born in 1845, educated at Eton and Balliol College, Oxford, who had served under Mr. Gladstone as Under-Secretary for War and for India. Nothing of moment occurred during 1884, save that Canadian loyalty was shown by the despatch to Egypt of a force of nearly 400 *voyageurs*, who rendered valuable service to Lord Wolseley in conveying British troops and stores by haulage and otherwise up the Nile in the region of the rapids. In November of the following year the Pacific Railway was completed, and on June 28th, 1886, the first through train left Montreal with warlike stores transferred from Quebec to Vancouver. The part taken by Canada in the Indian and Colonial Exhibition held in London during the summer of this year was very distinguished, in regard to her products and resources of every kind. There was trouble with the fishery-question on the expiration of the Washington Treaty in that regard, and the Dominion authorities were driven to seizing American vessels for illegal fishing in the Bay of Fundy. American reprisals were made, and efforts for a settlement then led to the appointment, in November, 1887, of a Fisheries Commission. In accordance with the report of this body, a Fisheries Treaty was signed at Washington in February, 1888, but this instrument, in the following August, was rejected by the Senate of the United States. An arrangement was, however, afterwards concluded, based upon a clause in the treaty, by which United States fishing-craft were admitted to Canadian waters on payment of a license-fee according to tonnage. In 1887, the Jubilee of Queen Victoria's accession was celebrated with the most enthusiastic loyalty, and the mails between Great

Britain and Japan began to be sent by way of the Canadian Pacific Railway. In 1888, Lord Stanley of Preston, a son of the Earl of Derby who was thrice premier, became Governor-General. Two years later the "Express" line of steamships began to run between Vancouver, Japan, and Hong Kong, in connection with the Canadian Pacific Railway, and much more rapid communication was thus afforded between the British Isles and the distant east of Asia. By this route the distance from Liverpool to Japan and China is 1000 miles shorter than by way of New York and San Francisco. The census of 1891 showed a population of nearly 5 millions, Ontario (Upper Canada) having increased to 2,113,000; Quebec (Lower Canada) to close upon 1½ millions; Nova Scotia to 450,000; New Brunswick remaining, as ten years previously, at 321,000; Manitoba having risen to 154,000; Prince Edward Island, by an increase of only a few hundreds, to 109,000; British Columbia to nearly double, at 92,000; and the North-West Territories remaining still at about 56,000. In September, 1893, Lord Stanley was succeeded in office as the Queen's representative in the Dominion by the Earl of Aberdeen, a grandson of the earl who was premier in 1852-54. The new Governor-General was High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland from 1881 to 1886, and he won rapid and great popularity in Ireland during his tenure of office as Lord-Lieutenant from February to August in the latter year.

The next event in Canadian history was one of singular and mournful interest. On December 12th, 1894, Sir John Thompson, Premier and Minister of Justice in the Dominion, went to Windsor Castle for the purpose of being sworn in as a member of the Privy Council. About five minutes after leaving the Queen's presence, he sat down to luncheon with members of the royal household, and was quickly seized with an attack of faintness, which, after a brief recovery, ended in death from disease of the heart. The deceased statesman first entered public life in 1877, as a member of the Nova Scotia House of Assembly, rising to be Premier and Attorney-General in that province. His legal ability then made him a judge of the Supreme Court in Nova Scotia, a position which he resigned, at the request of Sir John Macdonald, in order to enter the Dominion Parliament. His powers of oratory and debate, combined with conspicuous knowledge and ability in several directions, made him

leader of the Conservative party after the death of Macdonald, and caused his appointment as Prime Minister in December, 1892. He rendered valuable service on the Halifax Fishery Commission of 1877, and on the Washington Fishery Commission ten years later, and showed rare dignity and impartiality as one of the British arbitrators at Paris concerning the Behring Sea dispute elsewhere recorded. In the summer of 1893 he took a chief part in the great Intercolonial Conference held at Ottawa, attended by representatives of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the Cape, to consider questions of common interest, chiefly those concerning their commercial relations and the improvement of means of communication. This assembly, as a matter wholly colonial in inception and execution, was one without precedent in the history of the Empire. In welcoming the delegates in the Senate Chamber at Ottawa, Sir John Thompson declared that the Canadian people were filled with zeal both for the development of their own country, and for the strengthening of the Empire, and that they were delighted to see the kindlings of the same ambition in the sister-colonies throughout the world. "The great object of our hope", he added, "is that, as a result of the deliberations of this Conference, the ocean which divides the colonies shall become the highway for their peoples and their products. . . . On this happy occasion, these delegates assemble after long years of self-government in their countries, of greater progress and development than the colonies of any empire have ever seen in the past, not to consider the prospects of separation from the mother-country, but to plight our faith anew to each other as brethren, and to plight anew with the motherland that faith which has never yet been broken or tarnished." On the sudden death of the utterer of these spirited and pregnant words, the British Government, with excellent feeling and judgment, made use of a melancholy occasion to strengthen the tie between Canada and Great Britain by demonstrations of honour and regret. The noble palace of Windsor became a temporary shrine for the body, where the Queen laid wreaths on the coffin in token of her respect and grief. The body was conveyed to Halifax, Nova Scotia, on board the first-class cruiser *Blenheim*. On the first day of 1895 the coffin, wrapped in a Union Jack, and bearing one of the Queen's chaplets, was there received by the Governor-General and the Countess of Aberdeen, amidst crowds of people whose demeanour testified to

SIR WILFRED LAURIER

The Right Hon. Sir Wilfred Laurier, G.C.M.G., D.C.L., LL.D., was born at St. Lin, in the Province of Quebec, in 1841. Educated at M'Gill University, Laurier entered the colonial Parliament in 1871, and became member of the Federal Assembly in 1874. He served as Minister of Inland Revenue in the MacKenzie Ministry, in 1877; was re-elected to Parliament in 1878, '82, '87, '91, becoming in this last year leader of the Liberal Party in the Dominion. In 1896 Sir Wilfred became Premier of Canada, being the first French Canadian to attain that position, on the resignation of Sir Charles Tupper. He represented the Dominion at the Jubilee celebration of 1897, in company with other prime ministers of the greater colonies. Sir Wilfred Laurier, an admirable speaker, is a thoroughly loyal Roman Catholic subject of the Imperial Crown.

From a Photograph by LAFAYETTE. 70

SIR WILFRED LAURIER.

20 DEC.1920
POLITICAL
OCIATION

the national grief of the Dominion. After lying in state for two days in the Legislative Council Chamber, the remains were buried with all the pomp of a State-funeral. Sir John Thompson's successor in the Canadian premiership, Mr. Mackenzie Bowell, at once received the honour of knighthood, not only by reason of his high office, but, as expressly stated in the *London Gazette*, as "President of the recent Colonial Conference at Ottawa", of which Mr. Bowell was a chief promoter. The Canadians were deeply touched by the sympathy of the mother-country. Sir Mackenzie Bowell soon resigned office, being succeeded by Sir Charles Tupper, who gave way, in July, 1896, to the Hon. Wilfrid Laurier, Q.C.

This able and eloquent statesman, the first French-Canadian to hold the high post of Premier of Canada, became a Privy Councillor and Knight Grand Cross of St. Michael and St. George in 1897. In November, 1898, a new Governor-General assumed office. This was the Earl of Minto, G.C.M.G., who had already done service in the Dominion as Military Secretary to the Marquis of Lansdowne, and as Chief of Staff to General Middleton in the North-West.

CHAPTER III.

Geography, Natural Products, Climate, People.

Boundaries and extent of the Dominion—Physical features—Lakes and rivers—Mineral wealth—Wild animals and birds—Vegetable products—Timber—Former mistaken views regarding the climate—Now proved to be healthy and invigorating—The long summer, and "Indian summer" in autumn—Population—Nationalities—Immigration—Indians and Eskimo.

The Dominion of Canada, which embraces the whole of British North America, save Newfoundland and the coast of Labrador, extends from about 42° north latitude to the Arctic Ocean in its extreme length at the region of the great lakes, and northwards from about 49° in the western half, being everywhere bounded on the south, except in Nova Scotia and some adjacent territory, by the United States. With a length of about 1400 miles, and a breadth of about 3500 miles, this enormous region has an area, including the lakes and rivers, exceeding 3½ millions of square miles. The territory is about as large as Europe; it is half a

million square miles larger than Australia; four times the area of British India; sixty times greater than England and Wales; and the inland lakes and rivers, put together as one piece of water, would float Great Britain and Ireland, leaving a good strip of water all around. The country extends from a region where maize and peaches grow and ripen to a line where all vegetation fades away upon shores of perpetual ice. The variety of aspect and the size of Canada are such that she includes, on the east, one of the greatest forest regions in the world; in the centre, a vast prairie territory; on the west, a "sea of mountains" far surpassing in extent any rugged portion of Europe. The map shows, on the eastern coast, a circuitous indented line extending, along the inlets and round the islands, for more than 10,000 miles, and the Pacific shore, with its many islands and bays, is of almost equal extent. Hudson Bay has a length of 1000 miles, with 600 miles of extreme width, and the Gulf of St. Lawrence has an area of 80,000 sq. miles. Such is the colossal scale of the Canadian Dominion, of which only one-fourth is "settled" country, while regions yet untilled and ungrazed could supply hundreds of millions of human beings with bread and meat of the highest quality.

As regards the conformation of surface, we note that the eastern hilly region has its chief ranges nearly parallel to the St. Lawrence. On the north side, the Lawrentian Range varies in height from 1000 to 3000 feet; on the south, the river-bank is fringed by the Notre Dame or Shickshock Mountains, rising to 4000 feet. The central prairie, the region of wheat-production, actual and possible, stretches north-westwards from Lake Superior to the Rocky Mountains. At the eastern end, this great region of plains, with low hills in some places, and well-wooded in many parts, is about 800 feet, and on the western side, about 3000 feet, above the level of the sea. In the south of this territory lies the watershed whence the rivers on the northern slope flow to Hudson's Bay or the Arctic Ocean, while the streams of the southern slope go to form rivers that make their way into the Gulf of Mexico. Beyond the great plain come the Rockies or Rocky Mountains, a range of triple chains with an average elevation of 7000 to 8000 feet; low in the extreme north, rapidly increasing in height towards the south, and culminating, as regards the most easterly chain, near to the 52nd parallel of north latitude, with Mounts Brown, Hooker,

and Murchison attaining quite or nearly 16,000 feet. The magnificent country on the Pacific slope has for its peculiar features lofty mountains, deep gorges or canyons, large and rapid rivers, long narrow lakes, great forests of gigantic trees, and countless narrow inlets or fiords. The Dominion is, above all, a region adorned and fertilized by grand expanses and noble rivers of water supplied by perennial springs and by an abundant fall of summer rains. The fresh-water lakes surpass, in number and size combined, all that any continent in the world can show. Apart from the five great lakes, with a total area of 90,000 sq. miles, of which Canada only shares four with the United States, the country shows, as solely her own, magnificent sheets of water ranging from the area of a large English county to beyond the size of Belgium, in Lake of the Woods (1500 sq. miles), Manitoba (about 2000), Winnipegosis and Athabasca (each 3000), Winnipeg (9000), Great Bear Lake (10,000) and Great Slave Lake (12,000). Smaller lakes, many of which surpass in size the largest in Switzerland, are yet unnamed and almost unknown save to trappers and to travellers of wide range. The rivers, without including any of the largest in the world, are almost as striking as the lakes. The St. Lawrence, issuing from Lake Ontario, runs for 700 miles below Montreal, receiving the Ottawa, the St. Maurice, and the Saguenay, as its chief Canadian tributaries, on the northern side. Lake Winnipeg, receiving a river of its own name, the Saskatchewan, and the united waters of the Assiniboine and the Red River, sends forth the Nelson into Hudson Bay, which also receives the waters of the Churchill, the Severn, the Albany, and of many other rivers which would, in Europe, be of the first rank. The Athabasca and the Peace rivers flow into Lake Athabasca, which discharges the Slave River to flow into Great Slave Lake. The Mackenzie, fed from both the Great Slave and the Great Bear Lakes, drains an area of above half a million square miles, and reaches the Arctic Ocean after a course estimated at 2500 miles. The Coppermine and the Back or Great Fish River have the same destination as the Mackenzie. On the eastern coast, the St. John enters the Bay of Fundy after traversing Maine and New Brunswick for 450 miles, and the Pacific Ocean ends the career of the Fraser, the Thompson, and other large rivers in British Columbia.

The mineral wealth of the Dominion is very great, but has

hitherto not been fully developed. The product of 1898, in minerals of every kind, reached a value of about 7½ millions sterling, chiefly made up of coal (4¼ million tons, value 1¾ millions); gold, about £2,740,000; petroleum, over £240,000; copper, about £432,000; iron and steel to a large value for which no certain figures are forthcoming; nickel worth £364,000; and asbestos, phosphates, gypsum, lime, pyrites, lead, and silver worth over £900,000. Gold was till recently found almost entirely in Nova Scotia and in British Columbia. In 1897, an immense and richly auriferous region was opened up in north-western Ontario, in the region of Lake of the Woods, Rainy Lake, the Seine river, and the Manitou districts. The territory producing gold is about 250 miles long, and about half as broad, the metal occurring only in quartz veins, in reefs from two to sixty feet wide, with ore producing an average of one ounce of gold per ton. The usual rush to the district was made, no part of the region being more than forty miles from a railway or steamboat, and the whole possessing an abundance of fuel for "milling" purposes. The recent discovery of nickel in copper deposits at Sudbury, in the province of Ontario, is regarded as of great importance, probably revealing the largest supply of nickel ore in the world. Silver-mining is chiefly carried on near Port Arthur, on Lake Superior, and the largest petroleum supply comes from a depth of between 400 and 500 feet on the peninsula between Lakes Erie and Huron. The chief mines of gypsum are in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the phosphate of lime, greatly used as a fertilizer, is worked in Ottawa county (Province of Quebec), and near Kingston, Ontario.

Of the *fauna* of Canada we reserve many of the fur-bearing creatures until we come to deal with the industries of the Dominion. The buffalo or bison, once so abundant in this paradise of sportsmen, is becoming very scarce, and will probably soon be extinct as a wild animal. The panther (cougar, or catamount), much resembling the puma of South America, is now only found among the tangled swamps of the northern solitudes. The gray wolf, a strong, very cunning animal, may be seen on the north-western prairies, among willow-thickets and in the long grass, and is abundant in the great northern forest-region, where deer provide him with his favourite food. The traveller may descry on distant

hilly ground packs of the smaller, cowardly coyotes or prairie-wolves, or hear them howling round his camp at night. The black bear, never attacking man, unless first assailed, is plentiful in many districts, feeding on berries and the larvæ of ants and other insects, or provoking his fate from the farmer's gun by inroads among the ripening grain. The terrible grizzly, a monster of size, ferocity, and strength, often exceeding 700 lbs. in weight, and most tenacious of life, has his home in the Rockies, where only the boldest and most skilful shots can with impunity seek to make a trophy of his claws. The polar bear, in the extreme north, abides generally safe from the attacks of man. The wild cat and lynx are common in the far west; the red fox abounds, being sometimes hunted with packs of hounds; silver and other foxes are shot or trapped for their valuable skins. The countless creatures of the deer tribe include the huge moose or elk, the red deer, the caribou or American reindeer, and the swift and beautiful antelope. The Rocky Mountains have the so-called "sheep" of those ranges, the wary big-horn of the high cliffs, and the mountain-goat with its long white silky hair. The musk-ox, small, short-legged, and yet fleet of foot, with a kind of double covering composed of long hair above and close fine wool below, ranges from the northern shores of Hudson Bay to the Arctic Ocean, and supplies the successful hunter with a robe prized more than that which the buffalo used to furnish. Rabbits of a non-burrowing kind, and the prairie-hare, are very common. Of birds for sport there is no end—wild turkeys and geese, the bittern and the heron, teal and grouse, plover and woodcock, partridges and prairie-fowl, quail and snipe and pigeon, and wild duck in great variety and number. Eagles, hawks, owls, and many other smaller birds, go to make up the more than 700 Canadian kinds of feathered creatures. The lakes and rivers swarm with delicious trout and other fish; the salmon and the sea-fisheries are elsewhere described. Reptile life is not abundant, and except for the somewhat rare rattlesnake, there is little to fear from poisonous varieties. During the summer, butterflies and brilliant beetles charm the eye, and the mosquito makes its presence fearfully known in many quarters.

Among vegetable products not due to the tillage of man, timber claims the foremost place. Leaving the commercial view aside for the moment, we note that Canada proper possesses four or five

kinds of pine, including the white and the red, with eight kinds of oak; chestnuts, beeches, planes, walnuts, alders, ashes, birches, cedars, various poplars and willows, four kinds of fir, the larch, the arbor-vitæ, the yew, and the valuable sugar-maple. The trees of the Dominion also include hickory, elm, iron-wood, butter-nut, bass-wood, and the grand Douglas pine of British Columbia. Wild fruits are abundant and very various, the cranberry, raspberry, and blueberry being those of chief value. The summer season makes the country gay with flowers, including many of our British kinds.

The climate of the Dominion is a much-vexed subject, and one on which the colonists justly complain that gross misstatements have been made by ignorant and prejudiced persons. Until recent years, it was an article of faith among ordinary Europeans that Canada was a region to a large extent doomed to barrenness from intense and enduring cold. The land which sent such large supplies of fur across the Atlantic must needs be one of Arctic severity in regard to temperature, it was assumed, and the multitude could not be expected to be in advance of an eminent English statesman who, at no very distant day, referred to Canada as "those huge ice-bound deserts of North America". "Canadian cold" became a proverb, and the popular belief applied the stories of Arctic navigators to the valley of the St. Lawrence, the region of the great lakes, and the north-western plains. The experience of emigrants and the publication of facts have corrected erroneous ideas, and silenced the utterers of fable, while good sense has seen that, in describing a territory of so vast a range in latitude and longitude, and existing under conditions so diverse in various parts, it is idle to speak of "climate" as if it were uniform over the whole area. The Canadian Dominion possesses all the climates of Europe from the north of Italy to the Arctic Ocean, with all their extremes and intermediate stages of heat and cold. There are regions where the frost never leaves the ground and the earth is clad in perpetual snow; there are others enjoying almost perennial sunshine, where fruits and flowers flourish as in Italy or the south of France. The eastern coast has the humid air of the Atlantic, with a temperature greatly modified by the waters of the Gulf Stream; the Pacific shores, fanned by genial breezes from the ocean, have a climate influenced by the warm Japanese

current. In Ontario and the region of the upper St. Lawrence the climate may be fairly called temperate, although the heat in summer and the cold in winter are on the average twenty degrees greater than during those seasons in Great Britain. The large bodies of water have much influence on the climate. Hudson Bay, with a mean summer temperature of 65 degrees, is 3 degrees warmer in winter than Lake Superior. The finest climate east of the Rocky Mountains is that of the peninsula lying between Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron, where fruit-trees, shrubs, and flowers can be grown that cannot endure the winter elsewhere. In the Peace River district of the Mackenzie basin, the temperature throughout the year is remarkably genial. In Vancouver Island, the resident is, in respect to climate, in the position of the dweller in Devonshire, except that in summer he has greater heat with less moisture. One of the highest authorities, the great Danish geographer Malthe Konrad Bruun, commonly known as Malte-Brun, writing in the second decade of the century, declared that "Canada and the other British possessions in North America, though apparently blessed with fewer physical advantages than the States to the south, contain a noble race, and are evidently reserved for a lofty destination. Everything there is in proper keeping for the development of the combined physical and mental energies of man. There are to be found at once the hardihood of character which conquers difficulties, the climate which stimulates exertion, and the natural advantages which reward enterprise." The experience of more than eighty years has proved that Malte-Brun is right, and the detractors of Canada wrong.

The chief requisites of a good climate are that it should be healthy for the human constitution, and capable of producing food suited to maintain in good condition the human body. From these tests the climate of Canada, as a whole, emerges with triumphant success. The weight of children at birth, and the size at twenty-one years, are above the average of Europeans. In 1885, out of six thousand men, troops and non-militant assistants, who were sent, without any special selection, from the Niagara peninsula, and from all the towns between London and Halifax, to suppress an insurrection in the North-Western Provinces, not one died from any disease which could be traced to the climate. They travelled in open box-cars over the Canadian Pacific Rail-

way, marched across the gaps in the then unfinished line, trudged through snow and slush by forced marches northwards from three points on the railway hundreds of miles distant from each other; they slept in tents, without any unusual precautions, and during months of exposure in a journey up to the 53rd parallel of latitude, every man escaped climatic effects of a fatal character. The truth is, that a mere thermometric test of severity in climate is fallacious as regards its effects on the human frame. Granted that at Toronto the glass falls in winter, at its extreme point, to about 13 below zero; at Montreal, to −23; at Halifax, to −11; at St. John, to −19; at Charlottetown, to −20; and at Winnipeg to −40, the dryness and stillness of the air, in central and western Canada at least, make large amends for the low temperature. The cold is easily borne by the well-clad and the well-nourished; the air is most bracing and exhilarating, and the people enjoy a high degree of health. In the North-West Territory, there are horses in good condition that were born on the prairie and have for six or seven years never been under a roof. Cattle can live outside during the whole winter, and, having horses with them to break the snow-crust, and enable them to reach the dry grass beneath, they would come home in fair health in the spring. As a matter of fact, the farmers do house both horses and horned cattle in the winter months, but the cold is not of such a character as to make it absolutely needful. When we apply the test of vegetation suitable for human food, we find an almost equally satisfactory result. With the one drawback of an occasional summer-frost that, on its occurrence, works much mischief, the climate of the North-West Territories, where very rigorous conditions prevail, is such as enables the finest wheat in the world to be grown. The wheat-producing region of North America has been, by the Canadian colonists, carried steadily forward towards the north, and the danger to the plant from summer-frosts has been already met, to a large degree, by earlier sowing and by the adoption of hardy kinds of seed. The compensating power and graciousness of nature are wonderfully shown in the Canadian Dominion. The long winter lasts from the middle of November to the end of March or middle of April, or from four and a half to five months. The spring, in April and May, with its warm sunshine and sufficiency of rain, brings conditions so conducive to rapid growth

that, by the middle of July, the crops are as well advanced as those of England in a good season. Below the whole surface of the vast, fertile area where wheat is or can be grown, past ages of severe cold have stored up a well-spring of moisture in the frozen ground which, tapped by the penetrating rays of the sun, exudes constant nourishment for the roots that the wheat-plant sends deep down for sustenance. The long summer of four months, from June to September both inclusive, gives an average of two hours more of sunshine per day, in that latitude, than in any other wheat-growing region. There are thus, from the additional length of the days, practically eight days in the week for growing and ripening plants, as compared with lower latitudes, and the sun's forcing rays cause rapid progress. The autumnal season, October and part of November, includes the famous and charming "Indian summer", with frosty nights and bright, sunny, slightly hazy days; the season esteemed by many as the finest time of the Canadian year, when the forests are as varied as flower-beds in colour, with every brilliant hue save the blue which the sky supplies; the soft maples clad in crimson leaves, the oaks in every shade of bronze, the beeches in orange, and other foliage half bright green, half scarlet, toned down by groups of sombre pines.

The figures indicating the population at several decennial returns have been already given, but we may here again note that the population of Canada, estimated at about ¼ million in 1800, is at present, for the Dominion, about 5,400,000, of whom somewhat more than half are males. Natives of British North America make up about 90 per cent of the total. Of the rest, 500,000 are British-born; about 81,000 are natives of the United States, nearly 28,000 are Germans, over 9000 Russians, nearly 8000 Norwegians or Swedes, about 5400 French, nearly 3000 from Italy, Spain, and Portugal, over 9000 are Chinese, and about 14,000 come from other countries. Over 3½ millions are English-speaking, and about 1,420,000 use the French language. In the Quebec Parliament, speeches are usually delivered in French, and in the streets of Quebec city a policeman is uselessly addressed in English. The *habitans*, or French Canadians, speak a language more nearly resembling the French of the seventeenth century than that of modern Paris. The

statistics are too imperfect to enable us to calculate the natural increase of population as contrasted with that which is due to immigration. On this last subject no returns are now published, and we can only give some particulars of the emigration to British North America between the years 1830 and 1884. In the decade 1830–39 the total from the United Kingdom was nearly 321,000; in 1840–49, over 428,000; in 1850–59, about 258,500; in 1860-69, under 170,000; and in 1870–79, over 184,000. The decline observed after 1850 was due, of course, to the superior attractions of Australasia, where gold had then been discovered in rich deposits. A slight rise is seen in the decade 1870–79, and this improvement continued for a time, since in 1883 there were 44,000 persons of British origin only who sailed for Canada, a considerable increase on any previous year. It appeared that the home-population was at last waking up to the attraction and importance of the Dominion, with her far greater choice of good land in favourable positions than is now the case in the fast-filling United States.

The Indians of various tribes, including Algonquins, Hurons, and Iroquois in the St. Lawrence region, were officially given in 1895 as numbering about 102,000, of whom one-fourth, perhaps, are in the Eastern provinces, one-half in Manitoba and the North-West, and one-fourth in British Columbia. In the older provinces, very few are of pure blood; the mixed race or half-breeds, of mingled Indian and white (especially French) extraction, speaking a corrupt French patois, are intelligent people, fairly civilized, and chiefly engaged in agriculture and other industries, the franchise being extended, in 1886, to those having the needful property qualification. A separate Government-department has charge of Indian affairs, and schools have been established in which they show quickness in learning to read and write, and in music and drawing. In the North-West Territories and British Columbia the Indians are placed upon reserve-lands, being instructed in tillage by Government-officials. There are many, however, that decline to be imbued with this kind of civilization, and live by hunting and fishing, carrying their furs to the forts or trading-stations of the Hudson Bay Company. The Eskimo (Esquimaux), meaning "eaters of raw flesh", call themselves "Innuit" or "the people". They are of doubtful American or Asiatic origin, and their appearance, habits, and mode of life as seal-hunters and fishermen are too well known

AMUSEMENTS ON BOARD AN EMIGRANT SHIP.

During the period 1890–97 the stream of emigration from the British Islands somewhat slackened, yet the numbers that left these shores (including foreigners) averaged annually about 300,000. Most of these, no doubt, went to the United States, but many of them elected to settle in Canada, where favourable facilities are given by the Government for the acquisition of land. British Columbia has special attractions for the British emigrant, because the climate there resembles that of England; and the recent discovery of gold at Klondyke in the North-West Territories has added a new interest to Canada as a field for emigration. Her Majesty's Government supplies all information for emigrants through The Emigrants' Information Office, and the various shipping companies vie with each other in giving comfort during the voyage. In our illustration the emigrants, favoured with good weather, are enjoying the various games which are encouraged by the ships' officers.

ENOCH WARD.

AMUSEMENTS ON BOARD AN EMIGRANT SHIP.

to need description. They rarely come south of 55 degrees N. latitude; they live in small settlements of from 40 or 50 to 200 or 300 people scattered over an enormous range of territory, and number only a few thousands in the Mackenzie River basin, in the Arctic or sub-Arctic region to the east of that, and in Labrador. On a general review of the nationalities found within the limits of the Canadian Dominion, we note that amongst the emigrant and native population outside the province of Quebec, the prevailing types are English, Scottish, and Irish, in that order of importance, with a large preponderance of the English element. Scandinavians and Germans, Icelanders and Russians, are helping to form a new strong nation, mainly of the Northern Celt and Teuton races, to the north of latitude 45°, a nation admirably suited, in a climate so congenial to hardy constitutions, for developing the resources of a magnificent country.

CHAPTER IV.

INDUSTRY, COMMERCE, COMMUNICATIONS.

Agriculture—Stock-breeding—Cheese-farming—Experimental Farms—Success of Canadian farmers at the Chicago Exhibition—Trade in timber—Lumbermen—Value of the fisheries—The fur trade—The trapper—Manufactures—Commerce—Exports and imports — Shipping — Coinage and banking — Communication — Railways — Along the Intercolonial Railway—Grand Trunk Railway—Canadian Pacific Railway —Waterways—Welland Canal—Ottawa and Rideau Canals—Postal communication —Lines of ocean steamships.

The chief industries of Canada are, beyond doubt, agriculture, dairy-farming, and meat-raising, which supply about one-half, in value, of all the exports. With a rapid increase ever being made, over 65 millions of acres are now occupied, and the arable land produces, from Ontario and Manitoba alone, over 25 million quarters of corn in wheat, barley, oats, and maize. The majority of the holdings are farms of between 50 and 200 acres, with much larger areas in Manitoba and the North-West, both under tillage and pasture. Wheat, barley, oats, rye, pease, maize, buck-wheat, turnips, potatoes, and mangold-wurzel are the chief crops in corn and roots. Fruit-growing is now conducted on a large scale in the St. Lawrence valley, the Niagara district of Ontario being

notable for its peach-orchards, some of which cover many acres. Cheese is becoming yearly a more important article of production, the export now exceeding £3,100,000 in value. Stock-breeding on a large scale is now pursued, especially in the North-West Territories; the number of horned cattle in the Dominion certainly exceeds 4 millions, and the horses are estimated at about 1,360,000. The number of sheep is not in proportion to that of horned cattle, and it is doubtful whether that class of stock is destined to approach in Canada the importance which it has long had in Australasia. The owners of sheep are obliged to house them during the long winter, and the exports to the British Isles and the United States, reaching 5 million head in 15 years, have come mainly from Ontario and Quebec. As regards cattle-breeding, the purchase, at high prices, of many of the best male and female animals from British herds has produced its effect, and Mr. Cochrane, having a farm of 1000 acres at Hillhurst, in the south-east of Quebec, is known all over Europe as a breeder whose Black Angus cattle and Herefords command the highest prices. The high position of Canada as regards her most important industry was established beyond dispute by the awards of judges at the Chicago Exhibition of 1893. The variety of her vegetable products finely illustrated the climate and the fertility of the soil. The excellence of the wheat, after tests for quality made by chemical analysis, was such that an immediate demand arose, among farmers in the United States, for seed-grain from Manitoba and the North-West Territories. The result of the competition in cheese and butter was very remarkable. It is nothing to state that Canada, in the largest show of products of that class ever held in North America, beat all competitors. Two competitions for Cheddar or factory cheese were held in June and October. In the first, the entries from the States numbered 505, and the Canadian 162. Out of the 138 prizes awarded, the Canadians carried off 129, and the United States 9. A victory so overwhelming produced a marked change in the number of United States competitors at the second trial. In October, there were but 82 entries from the States, and 524 from Canada. There were 110 prizes offered, and Canada secured them all. The cheese mentioned above was all made prior to the year of exhibition, 1893, and it is a fact that there were 31 exhibits of Canadian cheese that, at the June show, scored higher

points than the best United States production. Out of 414 awards for cheeses made in 1893, Canada obtained 369, and the United States 45. The general result was that the States cheese-farmers took 54 prizes for 587 exhibits, and the Canadians 608 prizes for 686 entries. Of the three judges for cheese, two acted for the United States, and one for Canada. The significance of the above facts is much enhanced when we contrast the 5 millions of Canadian population with the 65 millions of the States. At the risk of repetition at a later stage, we will here note that the annual exports of Canadian cheese to the British Isles, now exceeding that of the States by several millions of pounds, rose from under 31 million lbs. in 1875 to nearly 156 million lbs. in 1895. There are many Yankee traders who send their cheeses to Canada for shipment in order to benefit by the reputation of the Canadian products, and it is highly to be desired that our colonists should have their own brand duly recognized in the British market. The Canadian cheese is very largely made at factories to which the material is sent from creameries established throughout the provinces for the advantage of small farmers who have very little time to make cheese and butter. The cheeses are kept, until they are ready for shipment, in large iced cellars maintained at a regular temperature, where they will stay for a year or more without showing the slightest appearance of mould. It is about twenty-seven years since the factory-system was started, and it is now conducted in an admirable way both by private persons and in the way of mutual co-operative concerns. The object is to produce an article resembling English Cheddar, and the product is worth from 4*d.* to 5*d.* per lb. at the factory. The milk is supplied from all the farms within a radius of four miles round each factory, being paid for at the rate of 3½*d.* to 4*d.* per gallon throughout the year, a satisfactory price in a country where every farmer lives on his own land and has no need to dread a rent-audit.

The Experimental Farms which are found in several parts of Canada are excellent institutions by means of which the Government strives to improve both tillage and stock-breeding. The Head Experimental Farm at Ottawa is under the direct supervision of the Government Director who has charge of the five throughout the Dominion. The conception was due to Mr. John Carling, M.P., a former Minister of Agriculture, and the institutions are of the most practical character, regular farms where crops of

ordinary acreage, not mere plots, are taken off the land in the best scientific rotation. Annual reports of the results obtained on soils of varied character are distributed free to all farmers, and the work includes every branch of a farmer's occupation, from corn-growing to chicken-rearing, and from grass-culture to tree-raising. At the Ottawa farm, comprising 450 acres of mixed soils, all kinds of fodder-plants are tested, with many varieties of grapes, and the whole estate is surrounded by a large belt of forest and ornamental trees and shrubs, serving the double purpose of shelter from cold winds, and of testing their growth and adaptation to the different provinces of the Dominion. Returning for a brief space to the Canadian share in the Chicago Exhibition, we find that 65 prizes were won for fruit, including seven for grapes. In vegetables, it was admitted that the Canadian display was greatly superior to any other, and these articles, as well as the fruit, won the highest praise from the jurors for variety and quality combined. In live stock, the Dominion more than maintained the splendid record which she won in 1876 at Philadelphia. More than one-half of the live stock and poultry of Canadian exhibitors took prizes. In cattle, with 184 entries, Canada had 104 prizes, 17 medals, and 3 diplomas; the United States, with 532 entries, took 306 prizes and 13 medals. In horses, Canada had 96 entries, which obtained 44 prizes, 2 gold medals, 10 medals, and 3 diplomas. The States, with 446 entries, carried off 257 prizes, 6 gold medals, 12 medals, and 4 diplomas. In sheep, Canada, with 352 entries, took 250 prizes, 5 silver cups, and 8 diplomas; the States, with 478 entries, obtained but 193 prizes. In swine, the 68 Canadian entries were good for 64 prizes; the United States, with 96 entries, won 67. In poultry and pet stock, Canada was awarded 501 prizes among 1147 entries, easily beating, in proportion, the States with 671 prizes for 2453 entries. The grand totals were, Canada, 1847 entries and 963 prizes; the United States, 4005 entries and 1494 prizes.

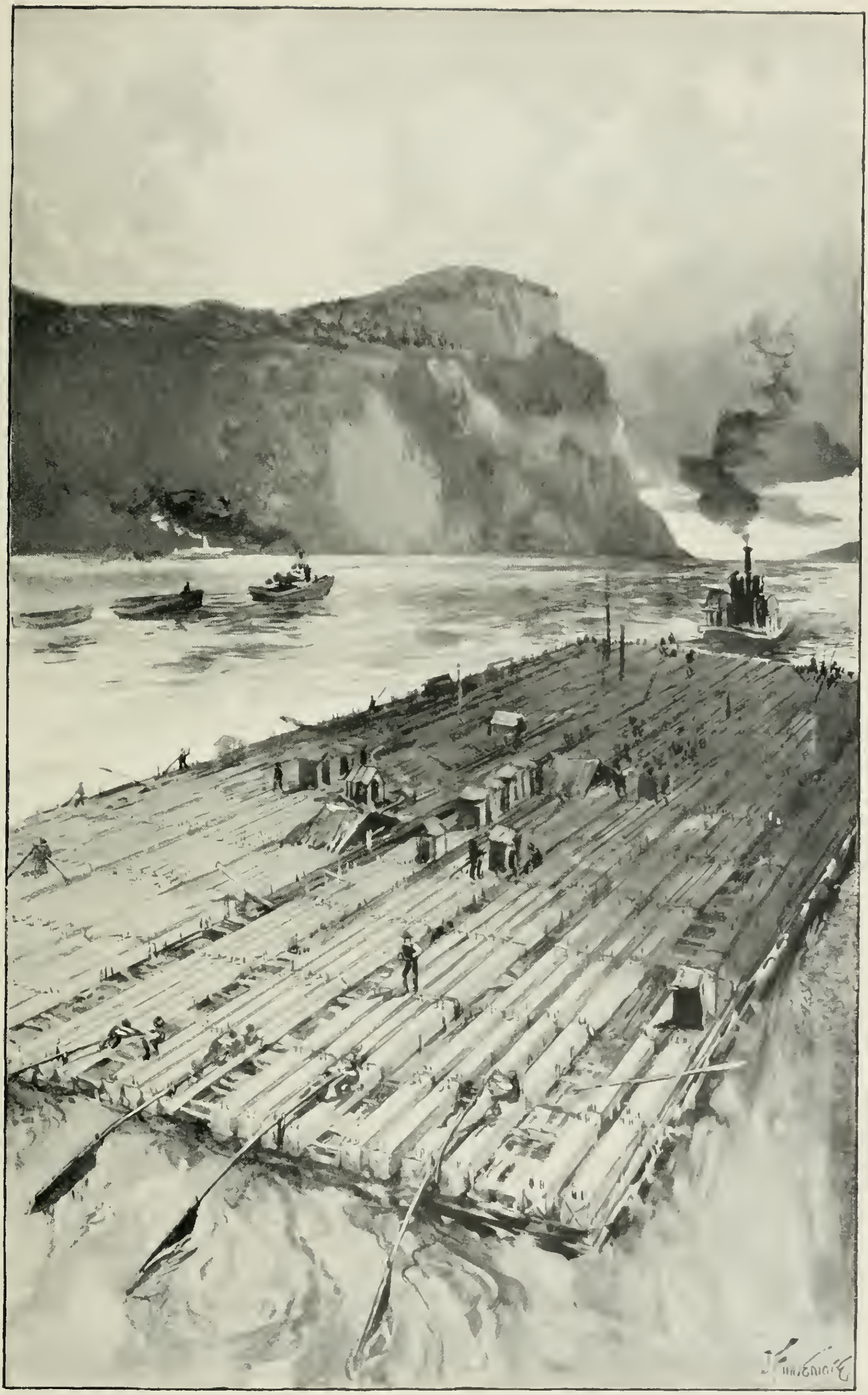
The timber or "lumbering" industry of Canada is a very important element in her prosperity. The Government returns for 1891, giving only the quantity on which dues, exceeding £300,000, were paid, and excluding telegraph-poles, cordwood, shingles, and a large production in other forms, record nearly 5 million cubic feet, besides nearly 1250 million feet in other measurement, which

we may assume to mean length of sawn planks. Another account, giving the production for home use and export in 1881, shows nearly 41 million cubic feet of white pine, over 2¾ million of red pine, over 5½ million of oak, above 4½ million of tamarac, nearly 4½ million of birch and maple, over 3 million of elm, above 800,000 of walnut, 387,000 of hickory, about 49 million cubic feet of all other timber, over 22 million pine logs, each furnishing 100 feet superficies of one inch thick, 26 million other logs, and nearly 11 million cords of firewood. These figures will enable us to form some faint idea of the resources of Canadian forests, and of the work done in the woods by the axemen, on the streams by the lumbermen in charge of logs, and at the saw-mills in various parts of the territory. The timber-trade of Canada with the British Isles assumed importance during the Napoleonic war, when the supply from the Baltic became uncertain and insufficient. Whereas in 1800, only about 2000 loads (each 50 cubic feet) of Canadian wood reached Great Britain, our import exceeded 125,000 loads in 1810, and that amount had become 308,000 loads ten years later, increased, in spite of the reduction of duty on European timber, to over 1 million loads in 1850, and to 1,310,000 tons in 1895. The Canadians have successfully competed with the lumbermen of Michigan and Wisconsin, and their export of timber to the United States equals in value that to the United Kingdom, while a large quantity is also sent to the West Indies, South America, and other parts. The timber of the Dominion now ranks in importance after agricultural produce, but it is to the lumber-industry that the farming-interests owe their development. The men who directed the use of the axe, in clearing the soil of its primeval forest-growth, were the farmer's pioneers and earliest customers, also affording regular and well-paid work to newly-arrived immigrants who, in many cases devoid of capital, earned in the service of the lumbermen the means of purchasing a share of the cleared land. His experience in the forest gave him handiness and skill to shift for himself amidst the surroundings that at first were strange and difficult. After building his log-hut or shanty and raising his first crops of hay, potatoes, and oats, he had a ready market for his surplus produce. When he became the proud owner of his first team of horses, he had work for them, during the winter-months, when the soil was frost-bound, in hauling logs. In no

small degree the lumbermen opened up and explored the vast territory that was to become the Canadian Dominion. When the banks of the chief rivers had been stripped of their forest-growth, they followed up the tributary streams that could float the logs, and then made their way into every nook of what was once a trackless country, laying down rude roads, bridging rivers, and establishing depôts for their timber which soon became villages that grew into towns. The revenue of the country was swelled by their payments, and to the timber-trade is mainly due the vast increase in the Canadian mercantile marine. In regard to the export to the United States, we may note that the protective duty of 20 per cent, while it operates as a stimulant for the destruction of the forests in the States, does not exclude the beautiful ornamental woods of Ontario and other provinces, bird's-eye maple, black birch, oak, basswood, black ash, and others, which are of great value for the best kinds of furniture and for interior decoration. The timber-lands of the Dominion are chiefly held by and under the control of the Government. In Ontario and Quebec, the two great lumber-producing provinces, the lands are divided into sections of a certain number of square miles, new sections or limits being sold by auction to the highest bidder for the right of cutting timber over that area. The purchaser also pays a small rental per square mile, and a duty on each cubic foot of squared timber and on every sawn log. In the winter-season, many of the young men forsake the farms and join bands of lumbermen in the backwoods. In Quebec province, the country around the upper waters of the Ottawa is rich in pines. When the felled trees have been lopped of their tops and branches, the largest specimens are squared with the axe, and the smaller ones are sawn into logs of from 12 to 20 feet long, all being rolled down the river-banks to rest on the ice. The spring-thaw carries the cargo on its flood down the stream, and then comes the most exciting and somewhat perilous time of the lumberman's life. The strongest, bravest, and most skilful men follow the logs and squared timber from their forest-home to the saw-mills, or the distant timber-ships at Montreal or Quebec. It is a stirring sight when the swollen stream is rushing madly down its narrow channel, carrying with it thousands of logs and huge cakes of grinding ice. When the timber becomes jammed at a gorge, the lumbermen jump into the water and mount the logs,

A LUMBER-RAFT BEING TOWED DOWN THE ST. LAWRENCE.

Ontario and Quebec are the two great lumber-producing provinces of Canada, the timber-bearing land there being divided into sections and the right of cutting the timber thereon sold by auction. When the trees are felled in winter by bands of lumbermen they are cleaned and squared with the axe, and then rolled down the banks of the various rivers to rest on the ice. In spring, when the thaw comes, the swollen river—say the Ottawa—sweeps along, carrying thousands of logs and great blocks of ice grinding over waterfalls and crashing through narrow gorges. When the logs become jammed, the daring lumbermen jump into the water, and, by pulling and pushing with a steel hook, set the mass free, at the risk of being caught and crushed by the rushing mass of timber. When the upper reaches of the river are passed the large squared logs are formed into huge rafts, on which huts are erected for the use of the raftsmen, who live there for weeks, guiding the unwieldy craft as it is being towed down the St. Lawrence to Quebec.



J. FINNEMORE. 63

A LUMBER RAFT BEING TOWED DOWN THE ST. LAWRENCE.

armed with a pole bearing a steel hook at the end. By pushing here and pulling there, or by cutting through a log that holds back the mass, the jam is loosened, and the utmost agility is then needed to escape death by crushing or drowning as the freight again rushes on its way. Even at the very edge of a waterfall, these daring men will step, roped round the waist, and thus held by their comrades on the shore, on to an impeded mass of timber, and are saved from instant death, when the sudden loosening occurs, only by the jerk at the rope, made in the nick of time by the men on the bank. The shorter logs floated down the Ottawa are usually sawn at the mills of Ottawa city, while the large squared timber is there formed into rafts, sometimes several acres in area, with huts erected on them for the use of the raftsmen, who there live for weeks together as they guide the huge craft down the rapids to Montreal, or by the St. Lawrence to Quebec.

The next notable occupation of our Canadian cousins lies in the fisheries, which are by far the most valuable in the world. In 1897, the worth of the produce was nearly 23 millions of dollars, or over 4½ millions sterling. Somewhere about 65,000 men, and 31,000 small ships and boats are employed in this industry. The cod, valued in 1895 at above 3½ million dollars (£700,000), is chiefly caught off Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the lower part of Quebec, the chief markets for the dried fish being in the Roman Catholic countries of Southern Europe, in Brazil, and the West Indies. The oil from the liver is exported to the British Isles for preparation as the well-known medicine for delicate people; the swimming-bladder furnishes isinglass, and the offal makes a valuable manure. The salmon, worth nearly 4 million dollars, are caught largely in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, whence fresh fish are sent to the United States, while vast numbers are canned in and exported from British Columbia. Herrings valued at over 2½ million dollars are obtained in the same waters as the cod, and are sent both fresh and pickled (or smoked) to the United States, and in the latter condition to the West Indies and the British Isles. Mackerel to the value of over ¼ million sterling are caught in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the Bay of Fundy, and generally off the coasts of Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island. Lobsters, canned in one year to the amount of 12 million lbs. in weight, and chiefly sent to the States and to

the British Isles, are worth in all nearly 2 million dollars, and are chiefly obtained off Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and New Brunswick. Nova Scotia, with fisheries annually worth over 1½ million sterling, heads the list of the Canadian Provinces in this industry; next in order comes New Brunswick, with about one-half that value: British Columbia, with about 6¼ million dollars; Quebec, Ontario, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, and the North-West ranging downwards from nearly 2 million dollars to about 1 million. The haddock and sardines of the sea-fishing and the trout of the rivers and lakes have also considerable value. The fishing-industry is encouraged by a Government-bounty divided according to amount of catch, and the fish-supply of the rivers and lakes is extended by stock hatched at twelve fish-breeding establishments in different parts of the Dominion. The sea-fisheries are regarded as inexhaustible owing to the vast and continuous food-supply brought down by the Arctic currents from the northern seas and rivers in the form of living slime composed of myriads of minute creatures that are thus deposited on the Canadian fishing-grounds.

The clear dry winter renders the furs which are produced in the Mackenzie River basin, one source of Canadian supply, unsurpassed in any region of the world. It is impossible to furnish a full account of the production of furs in the Dominion, but the return of the skins received at the Montreal warehouse of the Hudson Bay Company in one year gives a first idea of the variety and importance of the trapper's work. This contingent came from the deaths of 1900 bears, 20,000 beavers, 1000 ermine, 1900 foxes, 4400 lynxes, 17,000 martens, 7000 minks (of the ermine tribe, with valuable chestnut-brown fur), 72,000 musquashes (musk-rats, over a foot long, with short, downy, dark-brown skin), 3000 otters, and 600 skunks. That this large number represents but a small portion of the whole product seems clear from another return of the furs offered for sale in London, in 1887, by the Hudson Bay Company and another large importer. Thence we find a single year's catch raised to nearly 16,000 bears, 104,000 beavers, over 4000 ermine, over 105,000 foxes (including 2000 of the precious silver foxes), 14,500 lynxes, 98,000 martens, 376,000 minks, nearly 2½ million musquash, 14,400 otters, 3700 badgers, 114,000 rabbits, 13,500 hair seals,

3500 sables, 31,600 gray foxes, 1580 wolverines, 7000 wolves, and 680,000 skunks. In the vast hunting-ground that includes many hundred thousand square miles of forest, lake, river, and mountain, the Indian or half-breed hunters and trappers have in the winter, their best season for work, an arduous and adventurous life. For days together the lonely trapper is away from his home, carrying with him a little store of food in pemmican, composed of strips of lean dried meat, pounded small and mixed with melted fat. It is a wholesome and nourishing diet, keeping fresh for a long time, and packed in a small space. The steel traps used are like rat-traps without teeth, provided with double springs, set in the snow, covered over, and fastened to a log, to prevent them being carried off by the animal caught. A tin kettle and cup, a little tea and salt, a blanket, gun, axe, and hunting-knife complete the man's equipment for his journey through the woods. The glutton or wolverine, a strong, fierce creature larger than a fox, has a knack of following the hunter's track, and stealing the bait from his traps, in many cases without being caught. When the trapper finds a wolf entangled in the steel, he has often a sharp fight before the foe is slain with the axe, powder and lead being always reserved for the chance of a shot at untrapped "fur".

It is within the last two decades that the manufactures of Canada have been greatly developed. In 1891, the woollen-mills produced goods to the value of over eight million dollars, or about £1,600,000, and the cotton-mills, in the same year, numbered twenty-two, with 8,500 hands employed, making goods worth £1,700,000. The paper-trade is in a flourishing condition, having at present mills at work producing annually to the value of over 5 million dollars. The making of agricultural implements is another important branch of industry, with a product worth over nine million dollars in 1896, and yearly growing in amount and quality. The leather-business turns out annually nearly four millions sterling value of boots and shoes. Fittings and foundry-work; locomotives; saddlery and harness; sashes, doors, and blinds; sugar-refining from the juice of the maple: tanning, tin and sheet iron, ship-building, cabinet- and furniture-work, engine-making, hosiery, iron-smelting, nail and tack making, tobacco-cutting, oil-refining, and food-preserving employ a very large amount of capital. The work of the cheese-factories has been noticed in

connection with agriculture; the output of the flour-mills, at present valued at nearly £11,000,000, belongs to the same department; and the saw-mills, now turning out over ten and a half millions sterling value, carry on the work of the lumber-trade. In regard to the Canadian machinery, we may observe, that at Chicago, in 1893, in a small exhibit, nearly every article shown took a prize, 43 gold medals and diplomas falling to the share of the Dominion. The chairman of that department stated that in design, finish, and smoothness of working, the machinery from Canadian workshops was equal to anything exhibited, and that, as compared with the show at Philadelphia in 1876, Canada had made more relative progress than any other nation that took part in the display. The progress made in textile manufactures also received the highest praise from the president of the jurors in that class of goods, a member of the Austrian Commission who was himself a manufacturer of high-grade cloths. We must not conclude this section without noting an instance of Canadian manufacturing skill which may possibly surprise some readers. It is a fact that the Dominion now not only makes her own pianos and organs for the greater part of her large home-demand, but for shipment to foreign countries, and organs of Canadian make are now sent, chiefly through Great Britain, to every part of the civilized world. The pianos have also been found to stand critical comparison with the best products of countries long renowned for musical taste and artistic skill. The advantage claimed for the instruments of Canadian make is their capability of resisting changes of temperature and climate. Musical instruments, chiefly pianos, are largely made in the 89 factories in Canada, and, in regard to organs, a firm which, about twenty years ago, started by making one instrument per month, now turns out many hundreds of highly-finished organs, of which a large number are sent to foreign countries.

Concerning the commerce of Canada, many particulars have been already given. The total exports have an annual value of nearly thirty-three millions sterling, while the imports reach 26 millions. Of these amounts, the exports to the United Kingdom are worth over £21,000,000; those to the United States exceed 9 millions. The West Indies (British, American, and French), South America, Belgium, Germany, China, and Japan account for most of the residue. The imports from the

United States annually amount in value to close upon 16 millions; from the British Isles to more than £6,000,000; from the West Indies to about £250,000; from other British possessions (in North America, Africa, and Australasia) to over £210,000; from Germany, £1,000,000; from France, £800,000; from China and Japan, about half a million. The rest of the foreign imports come chiefly from Belgium, Holland, Spain, Switzerland, and Italy. The chief imports into the British Isles from Canada are wheat, flour, maize, and pease (above 4½ millions); wood and timber, 3½ millions; cheese, 3 millions; oxen, over 1¾ million; fish, over £800,000; apples, £450,000; bacon and hams, 1¼ million; skins and furs, £285,000. The principal articles of British export to Canada are iron, wrought and unwrought, ¾ million; woollens, nearly 1½ million; cottons, £650,000; apparel and drapery, ¾ million; flaxen, hempen, and jute goods, £260,000; and fancy goods, £206,000. Of the whole trade, above 22 millions in value, imports and exports, belongs to Montreal; nearly 6 millions to Toronto; above 2 millions to Halifax; 2½ millions to Quebec city; 2 millions to St. John, New Brunswick; about 1 million to Ottawa; and over 1 million to Victoria, British Columbia. The Dominion, as a ship-owning country, ranks next to Italy among European nations, or seventh in the world, with 6540 registered vessels of 682,000 tons, including 1870 steamers of 150,000 tons, at the present time. Her shipping-trade exceeds that of any other British possession outside the British Isles. During the year 1895 the ship-yards turned out 250 new vessels, with a total tonnage of 76,270 tons. The decimal system of coinage was established in 1871, the unit of account being the dollar of 100 cents, worth 4*s.* on the average rate of exchange. The coinage in circulation is all struck in England, the value of the sovereign being legally fixed at 4 dollars 86⅔ cents; the crown-piece at 1 dollar 20 cents, and the rest in proportion. The U.S. gold eagle of 10 dollars, with its multiples and halves, is legal gold besides the British sovereign. The lowest notes issued by banks are for 5 dollars or about £1; the Government issue notes or bank-bills for 4, 2, 1 dollar, 50 and 25 cents. The British weights and measures are in use, save that our hundredweight is superseded by the U.S. 100 lbs. avoirdupois, and the ton, on the same principle, is 2000 lbs. The banking-system is

strictly regulated by statute, every bank being compelled to make its payments with a certain proportion in Government notes, and to hold in the same form at least 40 per cent of its cash reserve. In 1895 there were 38 incorporated banks making returns to the Government, and having many branches all over the Dominion. In 1867, Post-Office savings-banks were instituted, and Government savings-banks, controlled by the Finance Department, exist in the maritime provinces, Manitoba, and British Columbia.

In dealing with the important subject of communications, railways claim the foremost place. At the end of June, 1898, nearly 17,000 miles had been completed by companies with a paid-up capital of over 188 millions sterling, and large extensions are in progress or have been recently made. There are 35 electric railways, with a mileage of 635, and nearly 100 million annual passengers. The Government own and maintain about 1200 miles of line. The general gauge is one of 4 ft. 8½ inches, with exceptions of 5 ft. 6 in., 3 ft. 6 in., and 3 ft. on one line in the north-west. The traffic is not yet such as to make Canadian railways a financial success; the Government lines, which include the Intercolonial and some branches, and the Prince Edward Island railways, have been for some years worked at an absolute loss, the expenditure being at the present time in excess of the receipts. The assigned causes for this result are sparse population, the expense of keeping the lines open in winter, and the low rates charged for carrying the Nova Scotian coal into the provinces of Quebec and Ontario, in order to develop the mining industry. The three chief railway-lines of the Dominion are the Intercolonial, from Halifax to Quebec; the Grand Trunk, connecting the maritime provinces and the north-east of the United States with the western railways; and the Canadian Pacific Railway, from Montreal to Vancouver, on the western coast. The *Intercolonial Railway*, 1190 miles in length, may now be briefly traced from its starting-point opposite Quebec to its terminus at Halifax, as it runs down the southern shore of the St. Lawrence as far as Rimouski, turns south and follows the valley of the wild river Metapedia to its junction with the Restigouche; crosses that river into New Brunswick, and traverses that province and Nova Scotia. The road is excellently made and equipped, the cars on through express trains being lighted by electricity and warmed by steam from the loco-

motive; the charges are very moderate, and the tourist and resident are conveyed to some of the best fishing and shooting districts of the continent and among some very beautiful scenery. As the train proceeds from *Point Lévis*, the traveller has a last glimpse, beyond the St. Lawrence, of the Montmorency Falls. At *Trois Pistoles*, 142 miles from Quebec, the halt for refreshments enables him to taste, in the dining-hall of the station, delicious fresh-caught trout from the neighbouring stream. At *Bic*, some distance further, a summer-resort on a picturesque bay, the hills reach a height of 1300 feet, and out of their ravines two small rivers descend, in many cascades, to mingle their waters with those of the sea. Ten miles more and the train arrives at *Rimouski*, a municipal town with a large and growing trade, a favourite summer-resort, and a port of call for ocean-steamers on behalf of passengers and mails to or from the maritime provinces. At 227 miles from Quebec, the waters of *Lake Metapedia* are reached, where good trout-fishing may be enjoyed, in the winter-months through the ice, and again in June. At *Causapscal*, as the train runs on, there is fine salmon-fishing in the *Metapedia River*, close by the station, and *Lakes Angus*, *Michaud*, and *Causapscal* abound in large trout. At 290 miles from Quebec, the traveller enters, at *Metapedia*, the splendid valley of the *Restigouche*, the boundary between Quebec and New Brunswick, and in crossing railway-bridges he enjoys a fine view up and down from the car-windows. The word "Restigouche" means the "five-fingered river", from the great branching tributaries which spread like the fingers of an open hand through Quebec and New Brunswick. One of these rivers bears the fearful Indian name of "Quah-ta-wah-am-quah-davic", happily shortened by the lumberman into "Tom Kedgewick". The salmon-fisheries of the Restigouche have a world-wide fame, and are chiefly held by fishing-clubs composed of wealthy Canadian and United States anglers. The strong, full current, in a course nowhere broken by falls or dangerous rapids, affords a fine scope for the work of the canoe-man. The Scot is soon reminded of his native land at *Campbellton* and at *Dalhousie*, a lovely watering-place on the placid *Baie des Chaleurs*, with a deep sheltered harbour, a good trade in fish and lumber, and a summer-hotel styled the "Inch Arran". At *Bathurst*, the *Nepisiguit* ("foaming waters") *River*, coming next to the Restigouche and the Miramichi as a salmon-stream, enters

the sea. The *Grand Falls* are 20 miles above its mouth, the river plunging in four leaps to a depth of 140 feet. *Newcastle*, at the head of deep-water navigation on the Miramichi, has ship-building and a trade in lumber, and in canned and frozen fish; a branch-line leads to *Chatham*, 12 miles above the river-mouth, with like industries and a population exceeding 6000. The *Miramichi* ranks next to the St. John among the New Brunswick rivers. At *Moncton*, the head-quarters of the Intercolonial, a prosperous quickly-growing town of 8000 people, we reach a flat, wonderfully fertile farming region, where a tidal stream flows into the *Bay of Fundy*. The extreme variation between high and low water here sometimes amounts to 70 feet, and the "Bore" of the river consists of the flood-tide sweeping up the channel in a foaming wall of water from 4 ft. to 6 ft. in height. The shores of all these tidal rivers that empty their waters into the Bay of Fundy are lined with great breadths of salt meadows, composed of an alluvial deposit of great depth and richness, protected from the sea by a regular system of dikes, and producing hay-crops of enormous amount. From Moncton to *St. John*, about 90 miles, the railway runs mostly through a rich farming country, but this is a digression from the route to Halifax, or the main line of the Intercolonial Railway. After Moncton we cross the Great *Tantramar Marsh*, one of the salt meadows, 40 sq. miles in area, with bogs and pools rich in wild-fowl, and then we come to the *Isthmus of Chignecto*, 10 miles across, connecting New Brunswick with Nova Scotia. At *Amherst*, 49 miles from Moncton and 138 from Halifax, we see a busy fast-rising town of 7000 people, with handsome public and private buildings. A few miles further on, an eastern branch runs away along the north of Nova Scotia towards Cape Breton Island, while the main line turns south by way of *Truro*, a busy manufacturing town at the head of *Cobequid Bay*, an arm of *Minas Basin*. The Park, perhaps the most picturesque pleasure-ground in the maritime provinces, consists of a bold, well-wooded ravine traversed by a small stream, falling at one point by a beautiful cascade into a fairy-like chasm having its steep wall lined with winding steps, leading to nooks containing seats, and lighted by electric lamps placed among the foliage. Nothing of a striking nature in the way of scenery occurs until at *Bedford*, eight miles from Halifax, the railway reaches the head of the noble *Bedford Basin*, a great lake-

like expansion of Halifax Harbour. Here, amidst boating and bathing of the utmost excellence, in waters of the mildest summer temperature, many of the "Haligonians", as the Halifax people are styled, have summer abodes. The railroad skirts the water's edge, and presents the most charming "bits" of scenery to the artist's eye.

The *Grand Trunk Railway* and its connections form a system of nearly 4500 miles, steel-railed throughout, with about 800 engines and 20,000 cars, and a body of servants numbering over 20,000, the whole representing an expended capital of about 60 millions sterling. Main lines run from *Quebec* (Point Lévis) to *Detroit*, and by way of *Port Huron*, at the southern extremity of the lake, to *Chicago*, on the one hand; and on the other from *Montreal* to *Portland*, in the State of Maine. Communication with New York from the west is by the lines at the Niagara frontier. The system is thus connected with the American railways throughout the States, and with the steam-ship service to Liverpool, Glasgow, London, Bristol, and other European ports. One of the great engineering works of the world conveys the line across the St. Lawrence at Montreal. The *Victoria Railway Bridge*, constructed between 1854 and 1859, from the designs of Robert Stephenson and Alexander Ross, the engineers of the tubular bridge across the Menai Strait, described in a former section of this work, is an erection of the same class as that in North Wales, but is on a far larger scale. The river is crossed in 24 spans of 242 feet each, with a central span of 330 feet, the whole having a length of nearly 1¾ miles, and the tubes containing over 9000 tons of iron, presenting a total painted surface equal to 32 acres. The ice-breaking piers, made with large bows at the up-river ends to resist the enormous pressure of the ice on its break-up in spring and downward flow on a current running at seven miles an hour, form a remarkable feature of this gigantic undertaking. The rails run at 60 feet above the river-level, and the total cost was 6,300,000 dollars or about 1¼ millions sterling.

The *Canadian Pacific Railway* main line, from *Montreal* to *Vancouver*, is 2909 miles in length. One of the conditions upon which the province of British Columbia entered the Dominion in 1871 was the construction of such a railway to connect her people with the east of Canada, and so with Europe. After many difficul-

ties and delays, the line was completed, according to arrangement with the Canadian Government, by a syndicate of London, Paris, and American capitalists, and was opened for general traffic in June, 1886. The contract bound the performers of the work to finish the line only in 1891, and the remarkably rapid execution was due to Government aid, to zeal on the part of the engineers and workmen, and to the favourable nature of the ground on the prairies traversed by so large a portion of the railway. A mile and a half per day was the average rate of progress in that quarter, and the work was proceeding from both ends. The last spike was driven in November, 1885, at a little station called Craigellachie, beside the Eagle River in the Rocky Mountains, 2569 miles west of Montreal. The fact of the two portions meeting at a point so near the Pacific strikingly illustrates the different character of the work which had to be performed on the prairie portion and in the mountainous western region. The route taken is from *Montreal* to *Ottawa*; thence round the north of the great lakes to *Port Arthur*, at the head of *Lake Superior*; thence to *Winnipeg city*, in *Manitoba*; thence to *Stephen*, in the *Rocky Mountains*; and then across British Columbia to *Vancouver city*, on the Pacific shore. At the eastern end, a fine piece of engineering is seen in the aerial structure by which the road crosses the St. Lawrence at *Lachine*, near Montreal. This erection is a brilliant application of the cantilever principle most nobly displayed in the Forth Bridge described in dealing with British railways, the spans appearing like clusters of huge steel cobwebs, and combining the greatest strength with the least possible weight and resistance to the wind. By a gradual ascent, the line reaches *Winnipeg* at a height of 736 feet above the sea-level. Still ascending, at *Calgary*, near the eastern base of the Rockies, it has attained 3380 feet, and thence, following the valley of the *Bow River*, it crosses the mountains at an elevation of 5560 feet, after climbing 1900 feet from Calgary in the distance of 123 miles. The descent is much steeper, as between the summit and a point 61 miles nearer the Pacific the line has fallen above half-a-mile. In a cañon (Spanish for "tube", "funnel") or ravine of great steepness and depth along the *Kicking Horse River*, the wildest and most beautiful scenery is displayed, as the railway runs high above stupendous abysses, with mountains rising thousands of feet on one side and a torrent roaring over its rocky bed far

below on the other. The mountainous region altogether extends for about 600 miles before level country is again reached on nearing the Pacific, after the lower part of the *Selkirks* and of the *Coast Range*, as well as the main chain of the Rocky Mountains, has been traversed. The culminating peak of the Selkirks reaches 11,000 feet above sea-level, and it was near to this point that the engineers encountered the chief difficulties in their gigantic undertaking. The line runs in double loops for six miles, descending 600 feet in that distance along the side of a gorge, near an enormous glacier; crossing ravines and the river again and again by great trestle bridges, and with all its twistings it thus accomplishes, in the six miles distance, two miles only of actual progress. Such was the kind of achievement in railway-making, at this portion of the route, which was needed to bring London, 6000 miles away, within 14 days of British Columbia, and to make that country's ports into links of a vast chain of communication between East and West, one of vital importance as a military highway binding together the great masses of the British Empire. The sportsman and the tourist have been brought within easy reach of abundant game and fish, amid splendid scenery that includes hills and lakes, waterfalls and woods, in recesses of the mountains that no Indian hunter had ever visited. The Canadian Pacific Railway reaches the western ocean in 720 miles less distance than the route through the States by the Union and Central Pacific lines to San Francisco. The Company which completed this noble undertaking received from the Canadian Government, as a spur to its progress, the sum of 5 millions sterling, the grant of 25 million acres of land along the line between Winnipeg and the Rockies, the gift of 712 miles of railway finished before they took the work in hand, and a 20 years' monopoly of the territory lying between their lines and the States. The arrangements of the line for the comfort of travellers are beyond all praise. The dining-cars and sleeping-cars afford the most luxurious accommodation that has ever been seen on wheels, with very large double-glass windows to keep out dust; excellent gauze-screen ventilators; hot-water pipes for warmth; large beds instead of narrow berths; smoking-room, bath-room, and lavatory; while now and again, at the halting-places, the train is boarded by hawkers of newspapers and books, and of cheap and excellent fruit. The passage over the vast prairie is one of great novelty to the traveller

fresh from Europe, as he sees the country rolling away in endless billows of grass-grown wilderness, and, as he stands on the rear-platform of the train, watches the two rails gleaming out from under his feet in absolute straightness, drawing ever nearer as the perspective lengthens, and at last merging into one silver wire far away on the blue horizon. This part of the long journey is a good preparation, in the way of contrast, for the glorious Rockies, with their exhilarating air, scent of pine-forests, glancing and splashing waters, snow-clad summits, terrific gorges, and a combined sense, as the train dashes on, of freedom with attendant peril. Among the Selkirks, the wintry aspect of the scenery is marvellously beautiful with the spotless white of the frosted trees glistening in their crystal covering, and there the traveller sees the methods needful to encounter heavy falls of snow from the sky, or mighty avalanches from the mountain-side, in the huge snow-ploughs, sometimes driven by six or eight locomotives in a line; in the snow-sheds, often for scores and even hundreds of yards boxing up the train, great wooden structures, with a slanting roof designed to shoot the avalanche over the track into the valley below; and in the strongly-built guiding-fences on the mountain-sides, which divert the course of the sliding mass and steer it to a point where there is a shed ready for its reception.

The Dominion is so well provided with waterways by canal, river, and lake that in 1891 a steamer, starting from Duluth, in Minnesota (U.S.), at the south-western end of Lake Superior, with a large cargo of wheat, delivered the same at Liverpool without breaking bulk. Up to 1898 over 14 millions sterling had been spent on Canadian canals for construction alone, and in the year 1897 over 30,000 vessels, of near nine million tons burden, passed through these valuable communications, carrying many thousands of passengers and nearly 9 million tons of freight, mainly consisting of grain, timber, and coal. There is scarcely any inland water-system in the world to equal that which enterprise, energy, and skill have created in this region. The obstacles to be overcome lay in the want of depth in the St. Lawrence in its upper course, in the rapids of that great river, and in the cataract of Niagara. Dealing first with the St. Lawrence, we find that the channel has been deepened so as to allow ships of 6000 tons to reach Montreal, 700 miles distant from the Atlantic. The rapids between Montreal

and Kingston, on Lake Ontario, are avoided by a series of artificial waterways, with an aggregate length of over 70 miles. A connection between Lake Superior and Lake Huron, to begin at the western end, was constructed on the United States shore, in the shape of the Sault Ste. Marie Canal, one mile in length, avoiding the rapids on the Ste. Marie river. Over 8 million tons of freight annually pass through this canal, though it is only open, owing to frost, for an average of 215 days per year. The Dominion Government, in consequence of the rapid growth of traffic, have now made a passage with a depth of 18 feet on their side of the river. The Niagara Falls and rapids, at the outlet of Lake Erie, are evaded by the famous *Welland Canal*, constructed, and lately deepened and otherwise enlarged, from *Port Colborne* on *Lake Erie* to *Port Dalhousie* on *Lake Ontario*. This passage is about 27 miles in length, overcoming a difference in level, between the two lakes, of 328 feet by means of 25 lift-locks. The masonry-work, of a very durable gray limestone, is of grand and massive character. At Welland the canal crosses the *Chippewa River* by a costly aqueduct. The original modest excavation, of which the first sod was turned in 1824, was designed to be 4 feet deep, 7 feet wide at bottom, and 19 feet wide at the water surface, "to accommodate vessels not exceeding 40 tons burden". The present canal has a bottom-width of 100 feet, and allows the passage of vessels of 1500 tons. The *Ottawa Canal* joins Montreal with the river Ottawa near the Dominion capital, and the *Rideau Canal* connects *Ottawa* with *Kingston* on *Lake Ontario*. Communication with the eastern United States is obtained by the Richelieu River and Lake Champlain system, avoiding the rapids between Chambly and St. John's on the Richelieu, and affording a passage to the Hudson, thus reaching New York, 330 miles from the frontier.

Postal communication is well developed, the number of offices in the Dominion, in June, 1898, being about 9300, with free carriage for newspapers from the office of publication. The expenditure, with this liberal policy, and a uniform rate of postage at three cents, about 1½*d.*, throughout the Dominion, rather exceeds the revenue, and amounts to over £946,000 against about £927,000 received. In the winter season, the work of conveying letters and other matter to outlying districts involves much exposure and toil. The men in charge of the mail-boat to and from Prince Edward

Island have to force their way through intensely cold seas encumbered at times with masses of ice, and to endure the discomfort and peril of snow-storms and fogs. To some points the postman makes his way on snow-shoes along the trail through the woods, and distant trading-posts on Hudson Bay and in other quarters are only reached by a monthly mail dragged on a sledge by Eskimo dogs, whose conductor is wrapped in the warmest furs. The telegraph, in 1898, extended over nearly 32,600 miles of ground, with about 76,000 miles of wire, and 2755 offices, and there were also above 70,000 miles of telephone-wire, with some 600 offices at work. In telegraphic mileage the Dominion, in fact, ranks eighth among the countries of the world, and stands first in number of offices as compared with population. There is direct cable-communication with Great Britain by way of Newfoundland, and a deep-sea cable is laid between Vancouver Island and the United States. A cable to Bermuda has also recently come into operation. The chief lines of steamships running between Canada and the British Isles are the *Allan*, from *Liverpool* and *Glasgow* to *Halifax*, *Quebec*, and *Montreal*, during the summer; from Liverpool to Halifax, weekly, during the winter months; and from *London* to *Quebec* and *Montreal*, in the summer season; the *Dominion*, with vessels passing between *Liverpool* and *Montreal* and *Quebec*, in summer, and from *Liverpool* to *Halifax* and *Portland* (State of Maine) and back, in winter; the *Furness Line*, whose steamers run from *London* to the chief Canadian ports; the *Beaver Line*, weekly from *Liverpool* while the St. Lawrence is open; and the *Ross Line*, from *London* to *Quebec* and *Montreal*, during the summer months. The *Royal Mail Steam Packet Company* also convey passengers from *Southampton* to *Victoria*, British Columbia, by way of Panama. By means of the Canadian Pacific Railway and a line of steamers subsidized by the Imperial and Dominion Governments, Montreal and Yokohama, in Japan, have been brought within 14 days of one another, and this Canadian and Pacific route affords the quickest communication between London and Japan. There is a monthly steam-service between Australia and British Columbia, for which the Dominion Government gives £25,000, and the Australian £12,000, a year.

CHAPTER V.

Municipal Government, Religion, Education, Finance, Crown-lands, Justice and Crime, Literature, Science, and Art, Social Conditions, Public Defence.

System of local self-government—Religious denominations—Public instruction in the Dominion—Higher education in the various provinces—Work of Dr. Ryerson—Colleges—Elementary education in Quebec—in Ontario—in Nova Scotia—in New Brunswick—in Prince Edward Island—in Manitoba—in British Columbia—in the North-West Territories—Satisfactory state of the elementary schools—Financial affairs of the Dominion—Protective duties—Management of the public lands—Administration of justice—Social state of the people—Their material prosperity—Character of the youth—Amusements—Literature—Judge Haliburton and other writers—Eminent names in science—Dawson and Romanes—Scientific societies—Painting and music—National defence—Militia force—North-West Mounted Police.

In all the provinces of the Dominion, local self-government is well developed. Taking Ontario as a model in which the system is most regular and complete, we find that affairs are administered by reeves, deputy-reeves, mayors, and councillors, all of whom are yearly chosen by the ratepayers. Townships or rural districts of 8 to 10 square miles in area, with a population from 3000 to 6000, are controlled by a reeve and 4 councillors. Villages with at least 750 inhabitants have a like form of local rule to the township. Towns exceeding 2000 are divided into wards and governed by a mayor and by councillors elected for each ward. Above these minor communities comes the county council or municipality, composed of the mayors, reeves and deputy-reeves, presided over by one of the body styled "Warden". The "city", any town containing above 10,000 people, is governed by a mayor and ward-aldermen. The municipal councils are empowered to levy rates, to borrow money, to take measures for promoting trade, agriculture, manufactures, and means of communication; to control drainage, roads, paupers, cemeteries, markets, public schools, free libraries, the methods for extinguishing fire, police, and other matters closely connected with the well-being of the people.

The Dominion knows nothing of any "State Church", the only interference of the Government having consisted in protecting the privileges enjoyed by Roman Catholics under French possession. The members of the Anglican Church, numbering nearly 650,000

by the census of April, 1891, are in charge of the Archbishop of Ontario as Metropolitan, ruling 8 other prelates in his ecclesiastical "province of Canada"; of the Archbishop of Rupertsland as Metropolitan of that ecclesiastical province, having under his control 6 bishops; and of the Bishops of New Westminster (British Columbia) and British Columbia, ruling dioceses under the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Anglican clergy number about one thousand. The large French and the Irish elements in the population make the Roman Catholics number nearly 2 millions, with about 1500 clergy and a hierarchy composed of a cardinal, 6 archbishops, and 23 bishops. The Presbyterian Church in Canada, formed in 1875 by the union of two bodies, has about 760,000 adherents and 1000 ministers, being ruled, as in Scotland, by presbyteries, synods, and an annual General Assembly, and having nearly 2500 churches and mission-stations. The Methodists have about 1700 ministers for 850,000 lay-people, and the Baptists 500 ministers for somewhat over 300,000. The Lutherans number about 65,000, the Congregationalists 28,000, miscellaneous creeds 108,000, and all others, of no stated belief, or pagans, are returned at nearly 90,000. The Roman Catholics, as we may suppose, have a vast preponderance in the Province of Quebec; the bulk of the Anglicans are found in Ontario, as also of the Methodists and Presbyterians. The five most numerous bodies above given have one or more divinity colleges.

The condition of public instruction in Canada differs vastly from that which existed prior to the nineteenth century, and for many years after 1801. A report of 1824 states that in Lower Canada (Province of Quebec) "not above one-fourth of the entire population could read, and not above one-tenth of them could write even imperfectly". A law of that year, providing for the establishment by the *curé* (parish-priest) and church-wardens in every parish of a school for every 100 families laid a foundation of the present school-system of Quebec. On the union of Lower and Upper Canada, a measure was passed providing for a uniform system of public education in the two provinces, and appropriating £40,000 a-year for its maintenance. In 1846, another statute improved the system, and first embodied the principle of compulsory taxation. Three years later, the system was made permissive, but new energy was developed under the control of Dr.

Chauveau, who prepared Acts for the improvement of elementary and higher education, established normal schools at Montreal and Quebec, and in 1867 became Minister of Education in the government of that province. The *McGill College* at Montreal, founded by the will of Mr. Peter McGill, was chartered as a University in 1821, and has faculties of arts, law, medicine, and science. *Laval University* and *Seminary* at Quebec, founded in 1663 by Mgr. Laval, is a Roman Catholic institution, with faculties in arts, theology, and law. In 1853, *Bishop's College*, Lennoxville, was incorporated under the control of the Anglican Church. In Upper Canada (Ontario) an Act of 1816 started the germ of the present public-school system, with the sum of £6000 annually voted to aid in the payment of teachers and the purchase of books. In 1824, the system was developed and the grants were increased, and in 1839 the Government set aside 250,000 acres of land for the permanent endowment of grammar-schools, and aided the erection of school-buildings in each county. In 1844, the Act of three years previously was repealed so far as concerned Upper Canada, and the duty of reorganizing the common-school system in that province was intrusted to Dr. Ryerson, an eminent Methodist minister who played a great part in favour of sound principles of civil and religious freedom, as regarded the disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Canada and the secularization of the clergy reserves. As editor of the *Christian Guardian*, a religious weekly journal established by his communion in 1829, he did much to acquire for the Methodist Church the right of holding ecclesiastical property and solemnizing matrimony. After holding for three years the office of President of the University of Victoria College, founded in 1841, he became Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada and for more than thirty years, often crossing the Atlantic in order to inspect the educational systems of leading European countries, he devoted his energies to developing the school-system of his native province. He was greatly aided in his efforts by a Council of Public Instruction, and by the wise and liberal legislation of successive parliaments, and the result was that the public-school system of Ontario became one of the most efficient in the world, admired by European experts, and most conducive to national prosperity. For the training and practice of teachers, the *Provincial Normal School*, in

1857, was founded at Toronto, with a branch at Ottawa twenty years later. The above-named *Victoria College*, opened at Cobourg with faculties in arts, law, medicine, and divinity, has been affiliated with the University of Toronto, with which three theological colleges are also connected. *Queen's College*, Kingston, under the control of the Kirk of Scotland, possesses university powers received about 1841, and the *University of King's College* at Toronto, organized in 1842 under the management of the Anglican Church, was thrown open in 1849, as a Provincial institution, to all denominations as the above-named Toronto University. The Anglicans then established, as their own exclusive possession, *Trinity University* at Toronto, with faculties in divinity, medicine, and arts. The *McMaster University*, in the same city, is a Baptist institution. The Episcopal Methodists, in 1866, received a university charter, as Albert College, for their *Belleville Seminary*, and the Roman Catholics have *Regiopolis College*, at Kingston; *St. Joseph's College*, at Ottawa, and *St. Michael's College*, at Toronto. In 1844, *Knox College*, Toronto, was founded as a theological school under the Presbyterian Church of Canada. All the chief denominations have also colleges for the higher education of young ladies.

Passing to the other provinces of the Dominion, and dealing still with the subject of the higher education, we find that Nova Scotia possesses six universities, including that of Sackville, belonging jointly to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. *King's College* at Windsor, founded in 1788, and by far the oldest Protestant college in the Dominion, received a university charter in 1802, and thus became the first colonial university of British origin. As this institution was solely Anglican, *Dalhousie College* was founded on the undenominational system in 1820, at Halifax, mainly through the efforts of the Presbyterian Church. *Acadia College*, founded in 1838 by the Baptists, received a charter two years later. In 1843, the Wesleyan Methodists of the maritime provinces founded an academy at Sackville, in New Brunswick, which received university powers in 1862, and the Roman Catholics, in 1840 and 1855 respectively, established *St. Mary's College* at Halifax and *St. François Xavier College* at Antigonish. All the above places of higher instruction receive yearly grants from the legislature. The *University of Halifax*, taking no part in the work of teaching,

but holding examinations in arts, medicine, and law, and conferring degrees, was established by Act in 1876. In New Brunswick, the *University of New Brunswick*, formerly styled King's College, received its charter in 1828, and took its present name in 1860. At first an Anglican institution, it became non-sectarian by legislation of 1858–59. The Presbyterians have colleges at Woodstock and Chatham. In Prince Edward Island, a school for higher education was founded at Charlottetown in 1836, and in 1861 the *Prince of Wales College* was established as a memorial of the royal visit in the previous year. Manitoba has now her own University, with powers to examine and confer degrees, and with Episcopal, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Wesleyan, and a medical college affiliated thereto.

It is one of the glories of the Canadian Dominion, in connection with education, that long before school-boards were established in Great Britain, the people of Canada had the advantage of free and unsectarian instruction. Nowhere in the world is good education more widely spread, and, through the public schools of a higher grade, along with many excellent private institutions, the highest prizes which the country offers are open to all, rich and poor alike, so far as intellectual equipment can conduce to success in the work of life. By the legislation of 1867, educational matters were left to the provincial parliaments of the Dominion, and there is no uniform system, though the principle of free education is generally admitted, and the expenditure is met by local taxation and by Government grants in aid. Taking the provinces in order, and dealing chiefly with elementary education, we find that in *Quebec* the central control is vested in a Superintendent of Public Instruction, assisted by a council of 35 members, divided into committees for the separate management of Protestant and Roman Catholic schools. Local control is in the hands either of the curé and church-wardens, or of local boards, and in 1898, there were about 5850 elementary schools, with over 220,000 scholars, including 700 of the higher class, with 80,000 pupils, besides three normal schools maintained by the state. Religious teaching is, in this province, part of the educational system, the Bible being the text-book in the Protestant schools, and a special catechism in the Roman Catholic. In *Ontario*, the Minister of Education is a member of the Provincial cabinet. The public-school system is specially excellent,

providing for compulsory attendance, local assessment, thorough inspection, complete equipment, graded examinations, and "separate" schools for Roman Catholics and Protestants, the Protestant being undenominational. The Scriptures are read, without comment, in every elementary and high school; the clergy and the trustees of all religious bodies may make special arrangements for sectarian instruction. In 1898 there were 6240 schools with over half a million learners, taught by over 9750 men and women, all certificated. There are many high schools or colleges for girls, and ample care is taken of instruction for the deaf and dumb and the blind. Reformatory-schools strive to reclaim young criminals of both sexes. *Nova Scotia*, in respect to elementary education, long lagged behind as regards a well-organized school-system, but in 1865 a great impulse came in a law vesting the central control in a Council of Public Instruction, the members of which are identical with the Executive Council of the Province. Boards of trustees elected by the ratepayers have local management in country "sections" or districts; in towns, the Town-council, or a committee of that body, direct affairs. Taxation for the support of schools is compulsory and the schools are free. Religious instruction is permitted, but the attendance of children thereon is voluntary. In 1898, there were about 2400 schools in operation, with about 103,000 pupils on the books. In *New Brunswick*, where the system as regards religious instruction is the same as in Nova Scotia, an Act for establishing parish-schools was passed in 1823. Ten years later, another statute gave aid to the amount of £160 in each parish on condition of a like sum being locally raised, and by degrees the system was improved and extended until every parish was receiving £660 a-year. A normal and a model school were founded at St. John, and provincial and county superintendents of public (elementary) instruction were appointed. The organization became so efficient that, in 1865, 900 schools were being carried on, besides 50 superior and denominational institutions. In 1871, an Act modelled the system on that of Ontario, with a central Board of Education, local boards of trustees, and free education between the ages of 5 and 20. There was much trouble at the outset in reference to the non-sectarian system, as being compulsory in order for schools to receive aid from the public funds, but the Privy Council in England sustained the

action of the Dominion government, and the difficulty was afterwards met by modifications of the law. In 1898, there were over 1790 schools, with about 64,000 pupils on the books. In *Prince Edward Island*, having about 470 schools and 21,850 pupils in 1898, the legislature first made grants in aid, to a small amount, as early as 1808, but it was not until 1852 that free schools were well established; since 1867, the system has been fully organized under a Board of Education, with local management in the hands of a Chief Superintendent. Instruction at the elementary schools is free, unsectarian, and compulsory between the ages of 8 and 13 years. The reading of the Scriptures without comment is permitted but not enjoined. In *Manitoba*, in 1871, the first parliament, in its first session, placed the central control of education in the hands of a Board, with Protestant and Roman Catholic sections, local management being vested in trustees elected by the people. Instruction is free, unsectarian, and compulsory between the ages of 5 and 16. The several religious bodies have also their denominational schools. In 1898, there were over 1070 schools, with nearly 41,000 pupils. The educational system is in a very promising condition, normal schools being provided for the training of teachers, and arrangements made in 1887 for establishing three high and eight intermediate schools in connection with the elementary institutions, a plan which has lately been carried into effect. In every township, two sections of land, each of one sq. mile, or one eighteenth of the whole area, have been set aside for the endowment of education, the whole reserves for this purpose being estimated at 1½ million acres. *British Columbia* had her school-system organized in 1872, that of Ontario being the chief model, and the legislature of the province having started the work with the liberal grant of 40,000 dollars (about £8000) annually. A Superintendent of Education, under the Provincial Secretary, has the chief control, the local management being, as usual, in the hands of elected trustees in every district. Instruction is free and compulsory between the ages of 7 and 12 years; as regards religious instruction, the law is that "the highest morality is to be inculcated, but no religious creed or dogma taught". In 1898, 261 schools contained nearly 17,700 pupils. The care of the Government for its younger subjects is well shown in the provision for the forming of a school-district wherever there are fifteen

prospective learners between the ages of six and sixteen. In the *North-West Territories*, a School Ordinance of 1888 established a Board of Education, and provided for the creation of school-districts in areas up to 25 sq. miles, each containing at least four heads of families and not less than ten children of school age. Liberal aids are given to the work, and in 1898 there were nearly 430 elementary schools with about 17,000 learners. To sum up, the total number of public (elementary) schools in the Dominion is above 17,000, with over 1100 higher institutions. The annual expenditure, including Government grants, exceeds 2 millions sterling. Well-qualified inspectors from the British Isles give an excellent report of the working of Canadian elementary schools. It is observed that, in comparison with British board-schools, the sexes are more mixed, an arrangement "which enforces better behaviour on the pupils through respect for themselves, thus lightening vastly the duties of teachers; that neither masters nor pupils are allowed to address each other, even in as large a class as 35 scholars, in a tone above that of ordinary conversation, a regulation which works admirably as regards good behaviour and strict attention on the part of pupils to the work in hand; and that the system of "payment by results" has long been given up as "most pernicious". The pupils are frequently examined by masters of other classes, and by inspectors at the term end, when they have to pass their respective standards, of which there are eight. On this plan, the teachers are not tempted to "cram" their scholars; the favouring of advanced children is discouraged; and the teachers aim at keeping the class evenly advancing, and encourage the learners to think before giving answers to questions. An excellent feature in all the schools is the orderly way of filling and clearing the class-rooms in marching order, boys and girls alike filing off with great precision. This training in discipline is also a preventive of panic in case of fire. Visitors to Winnipeg, after noting that the teachers are paid by the Government according to the class of certificate which they hold, describe the school-buildings as good, the sanitary and ventilating arrangements as excellent, the children as having a particularly intelligent, strong, and healthy appearance, as very clean in person, and well dressed, remarks which their experience enabled them to "apply generally throughout the whole Dominion".

Recent information concerning the financial affairs of the

Dominion shows a surplus of over 4,800,000 dollars (£960,000), in the year ending June 30th, 1899, on a revenue of nearly 47,000,000 dollars or £9,400,000. Of this amount Customs brought in about £5,000,000; Excise, about £1,920,000; Public Works, £887,000; and the Post-Office rather more than £639,000. The largest items of expenditure are Interest on Public Debt (over 69 millions sterling, chiefly incurred for public works) to the amount of over 2 millions; Subsidies to Provinces, about £850,000; Legislation, Civil Government and Administration of Justice, nearly £708,000; Sinking Fund, over £496,000; Militia and Defence and Mounted Police in the N. W. Territories, nearly £530,000; Public Works, nearly £460,000; and Charges on Revenue, nearly £1,900,000. It may be observed that the expenditure includes grants to fisheries and to Indians, and charges for immigration and quarantine, geological survey and observatories, lighthouses and coast-service, experimental farm, and ocean and river steam-service, including mail-subsidies. The remarkable feature of the Canadian fiscal policy, as contrasted with that of the mother-country, lies in the protective duties on imports from the British Isles and foreign countries, varying in 1895 from 20 to 35 per cent of the value. On August 1st, 1898, a rebate of 25 per cent was granted to the United Kingdom and West Indies, and to other countries in the Empire on like terms being given. Trade between the different provinces is wholly without fiscal restrictions.

The public lands in the various Provinces are generally under the control of the local governments, and in the older Provinces land, in limited areas, can still be obtained free by settlers who undertake to fulfil certain conditions as to clearing, residence, and improvement. In Manitoba and the North-West Territories the ungranted lands are chiefly administered by the Federal or Dominion authorities. The ground is laid out in quadrilateral townships, each containing 36 sections of about 1 sq. mile or 640 acres, with the townships numbered in regular sequence from south to north, and in ranges running from east to west. Each section of a sq. mile area is divided into quarter-sections of 160 acres. The even-numbered sections, except two allotted to the Hudson Bay Company, are open for "homestead entry" on a system whereby grants not exceeding 160 acres can be obtained by payment of 10 dollars (£2) at the office of the district-agent. Any

head of a family, male or female, or any male over eighteen years of age, is entitled to this privilege. At the end of three years, on having fulfilled certain conditions as to cultivation and residence, the holder receives, without further payment, a patent for the land, and becomes the owner of the soil or yeoman-farmer. Wood-lots may be purchased by settlers in need of timber to the amount of 20 acres at the cash-price of 5 dollars per acre, or such men may obtain for 25 cents (about 1*s.*) a permit to cut, free of dues, 30 cords of firewood, 1800 lineal feet of building-timber, 2000 poplar fence-rails, and 400 roof-poles. The odd-numbered sections of land, except two set aside as educational endowments for each township, are kept by the Government for sale and for grants in aid of railway construction. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company, who received, as already stated, the odd-numbered sections on each side of the line, excepting school-lands, for a width of 24 miles, have sold a large area to the Canadian North-West Land Company and to other purchasers, still having a great extent of soil for disposal at from 2½ dollars per acre. In British Columbia, any British subject who is head of a family or a male over eighteen years of age may obtain 320 acres of land north and east of the Cascade Range, or 160 acres elsewhere, at the price of 1 dollar per acre, payable by four yearly instalments, on the following conditions:—the personal residence of the settler or of his family or agent; and the making of improvements to the value of 10*s.* 6*d.* per acre. Lands from 160 to 640 acres may also be bought at 10*s.* 6*d.* per acre, without these conditions imposed on the purchaser. In all the Provinces, "improved farms", or small estates on which buildings have been erected and a portion of the land tilled, may be bought at prices varying from £2 to £20 per acre.

In a region so prosperous and well-ordered as the Canadian Dominion, where education is so well developed, there is little need to dwell at any length on the subjects of Justice and Crime. The Supreme Court at Ottawa has appellate civil, and criminal jurisdiction throughout the Dominion, and an exchequer court also acts as a colonial admiralty-tribunal. Each Province has its Superior Court; most Provinces have county-courts, with jurisdiction limited as in the British Isles; all the judges in these being appointed by the Governor-General. The Provincial Governments appoint the local police-magistrates and justices of the peace.

In 1898, 5787 persons were convicted of indictable offences, and of these 13 were sentenced to death, 558 were sent to the penitentiaries, and the rest were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment. The summary convictions numbered over 32,000, with the option of a fine in about 28,000 cases.

Those who best know Canada observe alike the lessening of the caste-distinctions that prevail in British society at home, and the careful maintenance of the "traditions of the elders" which are most strongly marked features in the social system of the mother-country. The ownership of land, in all the country-districts, gives a sense of freedom and independence to the great mass of the population that is little known in some European countries. We have already noticed the advanced state of Canadian ideas on the subject of education, and we may here advert to such signs of political and social development as the payment of members of parliament for their services; quinquennial parliaments; the absence of legalized pauperism; the legalization of marriage with a deceased wife's sister by an Act of the Dominion Parliament in 1882; and the prevalence of "local option" in regard to the traffic in alcoholic liquors. According to the report of the Tenant-Farmer Delegates who visited the Dominion in 1890, and, being men of the highest respectability in England who enjoyed ample opportunities of observation in Canada, the law concerning strong liquors has had an excellent effect. "I think it difficult", writes one of these gentlemen, "to find any country where there is less rowdyism and drunkenness than in Canada", and "taking them as a whole, the population is decidedly abstemious". In describing Toronto at a time when the great agricultural show and fair were being held, and the city of 200,000 people had many thousands of visitors devoted to the calls of business and pleasure, another Delegate refers to "the absence of all noise or drunkenness, no intoxicating liquor being allowed to be sold inside the show-yard, but every convenience afforded for refreshments of all kinds and non-intoxicating drinks". "Throughout Canada", he also states, "tea and coffee are served with every meal, which no doubt accounts in a great measure for the general sobriety of the people." Eulogy on other points is freely given by a third who states, "I never saw a beggar or was solicited for alms throughout the country", and "I never met with more civility, hospitality, and kindness than I did through-

out Canada at every point and from every class of her people". It is also pleasant to find, on the same authority, that "in Canada, laborious manual field-labour is really a passport to society. Wheresoever we went, the hard-working well-to-do settler (and the two things are usually found to follow each other) was received by every Canadian, no matter what his own position in life was, as a brother to whom they were ever ready to give honour and respect." A writer in *Macmillan's Magazine*, in some remarks on the Province of Ontario and its people, refers to "the stout North British yeomanry who have for the most part carved out Upper Canada and are its most distinctive social feature; and it is surely the rural districts of a mainly agricultural colony that tell its story best". In describing Western Ontario, the splendid country lying west of Toronto, and between lakes Erie and Huron and the Georgian Bay, he dispels the British notion of a Canadian farm as "a rude shanty surrounded by a waste of bristling stumps, and hemmed in by a belt of impenetrable forest where vast herds of deer and bear alone make life endurable by the facility with which they can be slain". The truth is that anywhere in settled Ontario the British visitor sees a country in every detail as civilized, as densely settled, and as well cultivated as an average rural neighbourhood in England. There are parts of the country which look as if they had been settled by the Pilgrim Fathers and cultivated ever since by East Lothian farmers. The crudeness of a new country has almost utterly vanished. The eye misses, indeed, the manor-house and park, the thorn-hedge and the labourer's cottage. The only habitations of man are the homesteads, but these lie much thicker on the land than the farmhouses do in any part of England where they are of the same substance and pretension. The farmer and his sons are generally their own gardeners, ploughmen, and grooms, while the wife and daughters do duty as cook and housemaids. The owner and his family, as a rule, work with their own hands in all the management of the homestead, which includes a good mansion of brick and stone and its surrounding clean, well-tilled fields. A fine economic spectacle is this of a whole province of 100- and 150-acre farms, all practically self-supporting, with no rent and little labour to pay, light taxation, and owners who are usually the second or third in descent from the poor immigrant who erected his log-hut upon a free grant, in the forest-

wilderness that then covered Western Ontario. Nearly every trace of these rude beginnings has been effaced, and the spectacle of perfect fitness and order, peace and plenty, evolved in so brief a space of time out of chaos, is a noble monument of British pluck, perseverance, stubbornness, fortitude, and valour in subduing and colonizing the world. There are those, on the other hand, who lament the change which has occurred in Canadian town-society through the loss of a military element caused by the withdrawal of the Imperial troops. "Tone" has departed with the British officers, many of them men of birth and breeding, men who had travelled, and were often accomplished and well-read, and with the wives and daughters who shone there in the last generation. The thrifty shopkeeper now, with some exceptions, rules socially as well as commercially in the country-towns of Upper Canada, with their pleasant bowery villas and maple-shaded side-walks. The new generation of young Canadians, it seems, have the purity of the English accent corrupted by Irish nurses, and by French, Scottish, and American servants, and have acquired a terrible twang in their speech. A compensation for this is found in the fact that the Canadian young man is one who excels in sport, knows not fear, and, if not fitted for a Mayfair boudoir, has made his mark in Africa. Within recent years, Stairs, Mackay, and Denison, all graduates of the Canadian Military College, have done good work as explorers and laid down their lives in African jungles. Early training makes the Canadian an ideal campaigner. For his own amusement he camps out in the bush, and, shooting rapids in his canoe and facing other forms of danger, he trains his nerves and muscles for the roughest work of life in other scenes. The Canadian girls enjoy abundant social freedom, and this is combined with a very high degree of propriety of conduct and self-respect. Before marriage she may and does dance, skate, flirt, and enjoy life to the full. After marriage, she is devoted to her husband, children, and household; she becomes an excellent and contented housekeeper of the German type. Undignified conduct among married ladies is very rare, and divorces are all but unknown. Canadian female beauty is rather American than English in its character; delicate and lovely features are common; the feet and hands are matchless; and the colouring is often striking in the combination of dark eyes with yellow hair or gray eyes with

black lashes and eyebrows—peculiarities largely due to mixture of races.

The social amusements of Canada are peculiar and delightful. Balls and dinner-parties are the same all the world over, but the people of the Dominion can offer to European guests attractions which are found in few other countries. In the summer-season, they have the finest forms of riding, driving, boating, canoeing, fishing, and camping-out in parties. The winter brings skating, sleighing, tobogganing, moonlight tramps on snow-shoes, picnics to frozen falls, and the hunting of moose (elk) and caribou (reindeer). The skaters, having abundant practice, often acquire great skill in their charming and graceful art; as regards speed, in 1897, J. Nilsson traversed five miles at Montreal in 14 minutes 47 seconds, an achievement which was a world's record for professionals up to the time of performance. Canadians are extremely social in their tastes. People of leisure pass much of their time in the houses of their friends, and in the larger towns "society" gathers at night in the beautiful, brilliantly-lit, well-warmed public or semi-public halls, for skating, to the music of a band, on ice of the finest quality, with a surface nightly renewed by flooding. The country-houses are rather like to villas than to the massive and stately "places" or mansions seen in Great Britain. In general, they have but two storeys, and are provided with wide verandahs which shade the living-rooms in the hot summer and are overgrown with beautiful creepers. Around the house is the shade of trees, with shrubberies, lawns, and pleasant gardens rich in the European flowers and native growths. There is little country-house life in the English sense, as the residences are not large enough for "house-parties", and in the months of June, July, and August all the fashionable and wealthy world goes off on the "salt-water visit" to the sea-side or the shores of the St. Lawrence estuary. The sleighs, vehicles which in Canada and the north of the United States are brought to great perfection, lightness, and beauty of construction, take the place of carriages in the winter-season, and afford much gaiety of sight and sound, drawn by spirited steeds caparisoned with bells of silvery tone. Tobogganing is a species of sleighing which takes the form of "coasting" or sliding down hills of frozen snow. A thin flat board curved upwards in front, or two boards joined together, with or without wooden "runners",

being drawn to the top of a snowy slope and started by a push in the rear, will carry one, two, and up to eight persons, according to the size of the machine, at great speed down the slope. The apparatus is then hauled up to the top by the cords attached to one end, and the sport is repeated until its chief devotees, the boys and girls, are tired of the fun. Ice-yachting is a delightful amusement, before the snow falls, on the smooth frozen surface of the lakes and bays. A three-cornered frame of wood, with an iron runner under each corner, has a mast fixed in the centre beam, bearing a sail which, in a good breeze, carries the yacht along at the medium speed of a railway-train. The machine is steered by the movable runner in the rear. The game of La Crosse, now much played at Cambridge University, and by some local clubs in the British Isles, but never popular in this country, was imported from Canada. An india-rubber ball is struck with a bat composed of a stick 5 or 6 feet in length, bent at the top like a bishop's crozier (*crosse*), and with this hooked portion traversed diagonally by strings of skin so as to form a network like that of a tennis-racquet, but less tightly stretched. Twelve or more players on each side aim at driving the ball between the opponents' goal-posts. The ball is scooped up from the ground and carried horizontally on the network towards the goal, being tossed in case of need towards one of the same team who may be in a better position to forward it to its destination. The ball must not be touched by any player's hand or foot, and no striking, tripping up, or grasping of a rival player is permitted, nor any touching of his crosse with the hand; it is allowable, however, to strike the ball off an opponent's crosse with one's own weapon. We must not forget that, in the graceful and athletic art of sculling, a Canadian, Edward (or Edmund) Hanlan, of Toronto, held the "World's Championship" from 1880 till 1884.

In regard to literary, scientific, and artistic achievement, it is still too early to expect very much from a country mainly occupied with material development. In literature, steady progress has been made, and good promise of better things has been afforded, while a few writers have obtained a reputation widely spread on both sides of the Atlantic. In the earlier Victorian period, countless readers were entertained by the humour of the writer whose popular name was "Sam Slick", as the author of works on the sayings and doings of "Samuel Slick of Slickville", a Yankee clockmaker and pedlar

full of quaint fun, rude wit, knowledge of character, and skill in "soft sawder". The writer of this and other humorous works, as well as of solid historical matter, was Thomas Chandler Haliburton, born at Windsor, Nova Scotia, in 1796, who became a barrister, a member of the House of Assembly, chief-justice of the common pleas (1829), and in 1840 judge of the Supreme Court. Two years later he retired from the bench, and came to reside in England. In 1858 the University of Oxford honoured Judge Haliburton with the degree of D.C.L., and in the following year he entered the House of Commons as Conservative M.P. for Launceston, dying at Isleworth in Middlesex in 1865. The well-known Charles Grant Allen, novelist and evolutionist, was born at Kingston, Ontario, in 1848, graduating at Oxford in 1870. Meritorious works on Canadian history and literature have been produced by Dr. Withrow and Mr. Adam. The contributions of Canadian writers in miscellaneous literature to the magazines both of the United States and of Great Britain are of growing number and value. The French-Canadian literature of Lower Canada, inspired by and modelled on that of the European founders of that portion of the Dominion, has valuable works on Canadian history and an interesting collection of essays, novels, and lyrics. In 1880, Mr. Fréchette of Quebec was crowned the poet of the year by the French Academy, and among his rivals in Canada are the Hon. Pierre Chauveau, Sheriff of Montreal, and once Premier of Quebec; Benjamin Sulte, and Pamphile Le May. Countless chansons of the *ancienne mère patrie* are still sung to the child in the cradle; by the *habitant* returning from his hayfield; on the timber-raft, and in the canoe. Many charming effusions in English verse have come from Bliss Carman, a native (1861) of Fredericton, New Brunswick, a very original lyric poet; Miss Isabella Crawford, a young lady of brilliant powers who died, yet unappreciated, at Toronto in 1887; Mr. Alexander M'Lachlan, styled "the Burns of Canada", who emigrated thither in 1840; Miss Agnes Maule Machar (pen-name *Fidelis*) of Kingston, Ontario, held by many excellent judges to be the chief Canadian poetess; Mr. C. G. D. Roberts, a foremost name in Canadian song, born in New Brunswick, 1860, greatly admired by Matthew Arnold for his *Orion and other Poems*, inspired by ancient Greek ideals, and also one "who has struck the supreme note of Canadian nationality in his *Canada* and his *Ode for the Canadian Confederacy*";

Charles Sangster, born near Kingston in 1822, the first important national poet of Canada, a Wordsworth in his love of nature; and from others whose names, with specimens of their poetical style, may be seen in Mr. Lighthall's *Songs of the Great Dominion.* In that volume we find stirring words on the new Canadian nationality; sketches of the Indian, the *habitant* and the *voyageur*; delineations of the rougher settlement-life; songs bearing on the summer and winter sports of the land; and charming descriptions of natural scenes and sounds—the humming-bird; the golden birch; the fir-woods, with "the wash of endless waves in their tops"; the "mellow pipes of myriad frogs" in the marsh; the "measured trill of the whip-poor-Will"; the fire-flies; the apple-harvest, the flaming wood-tints of the Indian summer; the first snow, the Aurora Borealis, the winter beauties of the jewelled trees, the flower-buds that peep in April, and the bobolink, styled by M'Lachlan the "merry mad-cap on the tree".

In science, Canada has produced some eminent men. Sir William Edmond Logan, the geologist, was born, son of a Scottish baker, at Montreal in 1798. He was partly educated at the Edinburgh High School in his father's native land, and after a commercial life in London for ten years he went to Swansea, in South Wales, in chief financial charge of the affairs of a copper-smelting company. It was there that he turned his attention to the stratification of the earth's crust, and his geological mapping of the coal-basins in South Wales was incorporated in the 1-inch maps of the Geological Survey. For nearly thirty years (1842–1871) Logan was director of the like important work in Canada, receiving a knighthood for his services in 1856; his death occurred, in 1875, in Wales. Sir John William Dawson, the geologist and naturalist, born at Pictou, Nova Scotia, in 1820, studied at Edinburgh, and became assistant to Sir Charles Lyell in 1842 and 1852 during his geological researches in Nova Scotia. After serving as Superintendent of Education in his native province for some years, Dawson became in 1855 Principal of M'Gill University, Montreal. His eminence in his special subject is denoted by the award, in 1882, of the Lyell medal of the Geological Society of London, and his general distinction as a naturalist was recognized by the knighthood conferred in 1884, by the honorary membership of many learned societies, and by his Presidency of the British Association

at the Birmingham meeting in 1885, when he delivered an address on the geographical history of the Atlantic Ocean. In some of his works Sir William Dawson has shown himself an opponent of Darwin's views on the origin of species. In this respect this distinguished Nova Scotian is in strong contrast to the late lamented George John Romanes, born at Kingston, Ontario, in 1848, a graduate in natural science honours at Cambridge in 1870, and a devoted friend and disciple of Darwin, whose arguments he supported with consummate ability in his public lectures and in his works on evolution which appeared from 1881 onwards. In 1879, at thirty-one years of age, Romanes became F.R.S., and his reputation was ever growing until his death in 1894. Among the chief scientific societies of the Dominion are the Royal Society of Canada; the Natural History Societies of Montreal and New Brunswick; the Canadian Institute, at Toronto; the Nova Scotia Institute, and the Scientific and Historical Society at Winnipeg.

On Canadian art we have not much to state. There is a Royal Canadian Academy of Art, the President of which, Mr. L. R. O'Brien, has painted, amongst other works, a beautiful view of Quebec for his sovereign, Queen Victoria. The National Art Gallery of Canada, started in 1882, was afterwards established at Ottawa under Government aid and control, and yearly receives many donations of art-works. We may also record the fact that a portrait of Mr. Gladstone, presented to the National Liberal Club in London, in December, 1892 (with a speech from Mr. Blake, M.P., already noticed in our history of Canada as a former Premier), depicting the great Liberal leader as delivering an address, and deemed by good judges to be one of the finest representations of Gladstone, was due to the brush of Mr. John Colin Forbes, of the Royal Canadian Academy, Toronto, the leading portrait-painter of the Dominion, who has also executed successful portraits of Lord Dufferin, Mr. Blake, Sir John Macdonald, and other men eminent in Canadian history. In the musical art, the Dominion can boast of producing the famous Madame Albani, born at Chambly, near Montreal, her real name being Emma La Jeunesse, and her professional title derived from her appearing first at Albany, in New York State.

In this department of our subject, before proceeding to a brief descriptive account of the separate Provinces of the Dominion,

we come to deal, lastly, with the important matter of national defence. As regards naval affairs, maritime defence is at present the concern of the Imperial authorities, who have 13 men-of-war in the North American and West Indian squadrons and seven others on the Pacific station. The only fortified places in the Dominion are Halifax, an Imperial naval station, defended by strong works, which are garrisoned by 2000 men, and Esquimault, in Vancouver Island, now an important, strongly-fortified coaling-station, garrisoned by Colonial artillery. In 1871 the Imperial troops were reduced to the number forming the Halifax garrison, and Canada thus relies almost solely, for immediate protection, on her two classes of militia, active and reserve, the latter including all male British subjects between 18 and 60 years of age. The active militia, serving for three years, and composed of voluntary enlisters and of men selected by ballot, numbers about 37,000 men, trained yearly for 12 days in the towns, at head-quarters, and in country-districts biennially for the same period, in camps of exercise. The force, now for some years commanded by a Lieutenant-General of the British army, includes 9 regiments, 1 squadron, and 3 troops of cavalry; 18 batteries of field-artillery; 45 batteries of garrison-artillery; 2 companies of engineers; and 91 battalions, 6 companies, of infantry. The permanent corps, just exceeding 1000 officers and men, comprises 2 troops of Royal Canadian Dragoons, 3 batteries of R. C. artillery, and 4 companies of the R. C. Regiment of infantry, connected with royal schools of gunnery (2), cavalry (2), infantry (4) and mounted infantry (1). In 1875 a Royal Military College was founded at Kingston, in Ontario, as a school of scientific military instruction; from this establishment 85 cadets have been gazetted to commissions in the Imperial army. The Dominion is divided, for military purposes, into 12 districts, each under a permanent Deputy Adjutant-General, with a Brigade Staff as his assistants in the work. The Military College has also supplied between 30 and 40 officers to the permanent force known as the North-West Mounted Police, a body of 1000 men and officers patrolling portions of Manitoba and the N. W. Territories, to preserve order amongst rough characters in partially settled districts where roaming Indians are also found. There are ten troops of these men with duties extending over a region 700 miles in length by 350 broad. These scarlet-coated troopers

are a fine soldierly set of men of whom any nation might be proud, being mostly from the British Isles, English, Irish, and Scots, with a good number of French Canadians and a sprinkling of Norwegians and Swedes. The ranks include not a few younger sons who have been unable to obtain commissions in the British army. The reputation of this splendid force has a very powerful moral effect as a check upon disorderly elements in the vast region committed to their care, as malcontents can never be sure what such men are not capable of if occasion arise. The head-quarters, where the Chief Commissioner resides, are at Regina, in Assiniboia, on the Canadian Pacific Railway. The whole force is mounted on the steeds called "bronchos", raised on the prairies to the north, a good class of horse, with excellent feet and legs, and capital action, purchased at 3 and 4 years old for about £24 (120 dollars) as an average price.

We now record the names of officers, numbers of men, and other particulars concerning the forces despatched from the Canadian Dominion to South Africa in aid of the mother-country during the Boer War of 1899–1901. The First Contingent, sent at the beginning of the war, was the "Royal Canadian Regiment of Infantry" (the 2nd, or "Special Service", Battalion) commanded by Lieut.-Col. W. D. Otter, Canadian Staff, A.D.C. to the Governor-General. The two officers second in command were Majors L. Buchan (Lieut.-Col. R. C. Regiment of Infantry) and Pelletier (Lieut.-Col. Canadian Staff). The eight captains were Arnold, Weeks, Stuart, Rogers, Peltier, Stairs, Barker, and Fraser. Under them served 24 Lieutenants—Panet, Burstall, Blanchard, Lawless, Jones, Hodgins, Ross, Mason, Armstrong, Swift, Willis, Marshall, Kaye, Leduc, Wilkie, Caldwell, Layborn, Laurie, Pelletier, Stewart, Lafferty, Oland, Temple, and M'Lean. The officer in command of the Machine-gun Section was Capt. Bell, of the Scots Guards. Major MacDougall was Regimental Adjutant; Capts. Macdonell and Ogilvy were Battalion Adjutants; Captain Denison was Quartermaster. The medical officers were Surgeon-Majors Wilson and Fiset. Major Drummond, of the Scots Guards, Military Secretary to the Governor-General, was the officer "attached for Staff Duty". Attached for Special Service Duties were Major Cartwright, of the Royal Can. Reg. of Infantry, A.A.G. at Head-Quarters; and Capt. Forester, of

the R. C. Dragoons. The "Medical Service for General Service" comprised Captain Osborne, Canadian Army Med. Staff, and Misses Pope, Forbes, Affleck, and Russell, as nurses. Capt. Dixon, of the Reserve, was "Historical Recorder"; the chaplains were Revs. J. Almond, Fullerton, and O'Leary. The eight companies of this corps came respectively from British Columbia and Manitoba; London (Ontario); Toronto; Ottawa and Kingston; Montreal; Quebec; New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island; and Nova Scotia, thus representing all parts of the Dominion and the chief towns. In all, with re-inforcements and some "special enlistments of Canadians in South Africa", this first Canadian contingent comprised 45 officers and 1111 non-coms. and men.

The Second Canadian Contingent, despatched early in 1900, was composed of the 1st and 2nd Battalions of the Canadian Mounted Rifles, in 4 squadrons, and of a Brigade Division, Field Artillery, in 3 batteries. The officers of the 1st Battalion C. M. R. (now the "Royal Canadian Dragoons") were Lieut.-Col. Lessard, in command; Lieut.-Col. Evans, second in command; Capts. Williams and Forester, commanding squadrons; Capts. Greenwood and Pearse; Lieuts. King, Borden, Turner, Van Luven, Cockburn, Van Straubenzee, Elmsley, and Young; the Adjutant was Captain Nelles; Capt. Wynne was Quartermaster; Surg.-Major Duff, Medical Officer; Capt. Harrison, Transport-Officer; Vet.-Major Hall, Vet. Officer. The 2nd Battalion was commanded by Commissioner Herchmer, of the North-West Mounted Police; Major Steele, Superintendent in the same corps, was second in command; Superintendents Howe and Sanders commanded squadrons; under these officers served, as captains, Inspectors Cuthbert and Macdonald; and, as lieutenants, Lieut. Chalmers, of the Reserve; Inspectors Moodie, Begin, Davidson, Wroughton, and Cosby; Lieuts. Inglis (late of the Berkshires) and Taylor, of the Manitoba Dragoons. Lieut. Howard had charge of the Machine-gun Section; the Adjutant was Inspector Baker, of the N.W. M. P.; Inspector Allan was Quartermaster, Surgeon-Lieut. Devine, Medical Officer; Mr. Eustace was Transport-Officer, and Mr. Riddell, Vet. Officer.

The Field-Artillery was under the command of Lieut.-Col. Drury, A.D.C. to the Gov.-General, of the R. C. Artillery;

with Majors Hudon, Hurdman, and Ogilvie, respectively in command of C, D, and E Batteries. Under these officers served Capts. Costigan, Panet, and Eaton; Lieuts. Irving, Good, King, Van Tuyl, M'Crea, Ogilvie, Morrison, Leslie, and Murray. Capt. Mackie, of the 2nd Field Battery, was "attached for duty"; Capt. Thacker, of the R. C. Artillery, was Adjutant; the Medical Officer was Surg.-Major Worthington; the Vet. Officer, Vet.-Major Massie. Lieut. Vaux, of the Canadian Army Med. Service, was on "Medical Staff for General Service", and Misses Hercum, Horne, Macdonald, and Richardson were the nurses with the contingent. The chaplains were Revs. Lane, Cox, and Sinnett. The two battalions of Mounted Rifles comprised 38 officers and 704 non-coms. and men; the Brigade-Division of Field Artillery had 19 officers and 520 non-coms. and men.

We come, lastly, to the corps known as Strathcona's Horse, already mentioned in the history of the Boer War. The officers, all selected from the N.W. M. P. and the Canadian Militia, included Lieut.-Col. Steele, Majors Belcher (second in command), Laurie, Jarvis, and Snyder; Capts. Howards, Cameron, and Cartwright; Lieuts. Courtney, Macdonald, Mackie, Pooley, Magee, Fall, Christie, Leckie, Strange, Ketchen, White-Fraser, Harper, Fitzpatrick, Laidlaw, Tobin, Benyon, and Adamson. The Quartermaster was W. Parker; Dr. Keenan, Medical Officer; G. T. Stevenson, Vet. Officer, and Lieut. Snider, Transport-Officer. Strathcona's Horse, named from its munificent founder, Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, High Commissioner in Great Britain for the Dominion of Canada, with the re-inforcements thereto, comprised 29 officers and 565 non-coms. and men. Including the 13 officers attached for instructional and other purposes, the contingents supplied by the Dominion for service in South Africa were composed of 144 officers, 6 chaplains, 8 nurses, and 2923 non-coms. and men, a noble contribution to the service of the Empire in time of need. Of the gallant conduct of the Canadians in the South African War, many particulars have been given in our account of that struggle. We now give the list of casualties incurred by these brave patriots up to November 19th, 1900. This mournful roll includes 64 officers, non-coms. and men who were killed in action or died of wounds; 63 who perished by disease or accident; 190 wounded. and 22 "missing", probably

prisoners, most of whom rejoined, making a total of 339 casualties or about one-ninth of the whole force. The officers killed in action were Lieuts. Chalmers, Borden, and Birch; Capt. Arnold and Lieut. Blanchard died of wounds; Capt. Pearse was carried off by tuberculosis, and Lieut. Harrison by enteric fever.

We proceed to state the circumstances under which one of the brave Canadians won the Victoria Cross. On July 5th, at Wolve Spruit, about fifteen miles north of Standerton, on the Johannesburg-Natal Railway, a party of Lord Strathcona's Corps, only 38 in number, came into contact with a force of 80 Boers. When the order to retire had been given, Sergeant Arthur Herbert Lindsey Richardson rode back under a very heavy cross-fire and picked up a trooper whose horse had been shot, and who was wounded in two places, and rode with him out of fire.

We close this record with a description of the well-won honour duly rendered to the brave and loyal men from the Dominion on their way home from South Africa. The Canadians of the Second Contingent sailed direct from the Cape to Canada, and the whole force was represented in England by the First Contingent, composed of the Second Infantry Battalion Royal Canadian Regiment, and by Strathcona's Horse. The First Contingent arrived in the capital of the empire early in December, 1900, and had an enthusiastic welcome from all classes. At the Mansion House and at Guildhall they were received by the Lord Mayor. Few of the officers and men had ever visited London, and many pleasant hours were spent in seeing buildings of world-wide interest and renown. On a visit made to Kensington Palace, the birthplace of their Queen, the party were received by the Duke of Argyll, son-in-law of the sovereign, and he, supported by the Princess Louise (Duchess of Argyll), who had come expressly from Scotland, and by Lord Strathcona and many other notable personages, presided at a luncheon of honour to the gallant guests. After a dinner to the officers of the contingent, given by the Canada Club at the famous Albion Tavern, Aldersgate Street, the whole body took train for Liverpool, where they had a splendid reception from the Lord Mayor and citizens before embarking for home.

Special honour was accorded, in February, 1901, to Strathcona's Horse, while the empire was still freshly mourning the

death of the Queen. That distinguished corps, composed of 22 officers and 343 men on reaching London, were received by their new sovereign, King Edward VII, in the garden of Buckingham Palace, in presence of Queen Alexandra, Lord Roberts, General Buller, General Sir Evelyn Wood, Mr. St. John Brodrick (the new Secretary of State for War), Lord Strathcona, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, and many other distinguished persons. After an inspection of the troops, the King presented the officers and men with the South African war-medals, each bearing the name of the recipient. The sovereign then, "in the name of his late mother", and in fulfilment of her intention, honoured the corps by the gift of a "King's Colour", a beautiful silken flag, while the National Anthem was played. The brilliant scene concluded with a "march past", the colour waving in the sharp easterly breeze, to the stirring strains of "The British Grenadiers".

CHAPTER VI.

The Provinces: Quebec.

Boundaries, area, and population — The Côte de Beaupré — Its primitive French *habitans* — Scenery on the St. Lawrence below Quebec — The river Saguenay — Anticosti and the Magdalen Islands — The St. Lawrence above Quebec — River St. Maurice — Shawenegan Falls — Falls of Montmorency — Scenery of the country. Quebec city — Great fires of 1845 and 1865 — Its picturesque appearance — Streets and buildings — Churches — Suburbs — Trade. Trois Rivières, Hull, and Sherbrooke. Montreal city — Fire of 1852 — The Gavazzi and Orange riots — Favourable commercial position of the city — Its site and surroundings — Inhabitants — Churches and public buildings — The Winter Carnival — Summer resort of Lachine. Products, climate, divisions, and administration of the province.

The province of Quebec, running north-east in about 45 to 53 degrees north latitude, and from 57 to nearly 80 degrees west longitude, is bounded on the north by the vast wild region, sometimes called the North-East Territory, which lies between Hudson Bay and Labrador proper, and by this eastern part of the great Labrador peninsula; on the east and south by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and its inlet, Chaleur Bay; and by New Brunswick, and the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York; and on the west by the Province of Ontario. The total area, including the surface of the inland waters (*i.e.* the river and part of

the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the lakes) amounts to about 228,000 sq. miles, or more than 4½ times the size of England. The land-surface is about 188,700 sq. miles, or nearly 121 millions of acres. The Notre Dame Mountains, on the south side of the great river, stretching from opposite Quebec to Gaspé, and the Laurentian Range, on the north side, have been already noticed. The population, in 1891, was 1,488,000, giving a density of 6·5 per sq. mile: the increase per cent, from 1881 to 1891, was 9·5. In religious belief, the Roman Catholics numbered 1,292,000; the Anglicans (Church of England), 75,500; the Presbyterians, 52,700; the Methodists, 39,500, and the Baptists about 8000. Deducting the Irish, who numbered about 124,000 in 1881, we see that the Roman Catholics nearly correspond to the French population, who may be estimated as at least 1,130,000. In 1763, at the time of the cession, the French Canadians did not exceed 70,000, so that a very remarkable increase in their numbers, an increase natural and not due to emigration, has taken place in the course of 130 years. The fact is in startling contrast to the condition of things in France, where the population barely holds its own in point of numbers, whereas amongst their Canadian kinsmen families of 12 children are far from uncommon. The rate of increase in this way much exceeds that of the British population, and is a phenomenon in our colonial affairs.

It is on the north side of the St. Lawrence, on the Côte de Beaupré, below the Montmorency Falls, that the French Canadians are seen in their most typical form, with many traditions and customs intact that have disappeared elsewhere during the last generation. There are families living on lands which their forefathers took in feudal tenure from the first *seigneurs* of "La Nouvelle France", and the *habitans* are veritable Normandy peasants of the days of Louis the Fourteenth. Under the Treaty of Paris (1763) and the Quebec Act (1774), their language, religion, and laws have been preserved, and rustic conservatism has done the rest for the maintenance of a French nationality in British North America. Their vitality as a distinct people, apart from more subtle causes, is partly due to the radical differences between French and English character, and to the physical condition derived from ancestors made up of hardy sailors of Normandy and Brittany; of sturdy farmers from Anjou, Poitou, and other western French provinces;

and of the soldiers of distinguished French regiments who came out to fight their country's battles on Canadian soil. The *habitans* represent by far the most successful French attempt at colonization, and the most French of them all are those of the Côte de Beaupré. The names in the district tell of the faith of the people, in parishes styled Sainte Anne de Beaupré and L'Ange Gardien, and in villages called Ste. Croix, L'Epiphanie, Notre Dame des Anges; just as here and in other parts of Canada and outside her boundary, history and legend are enshrined in beautiful and significant names such as Calumet, Carillon, Portage du Fort, La Lièvre, Rivière au Chien, Joliette, Champlain, Richelieu, Sorel, Varennes, Longueuil, Beauharnois and Point Lévis. The narrow farms, or *terres*, now subdivided into small plots under the system (*Coutume de Paris*) of intestate succession which assigns property in equal shares to all the children, run close to the river, in a belt from 2 to 10 miles wide, backed by a second range of settlements, among the foot-hills, mostly held by Irish and Scottish people. Farther inland come the *colons* or pioneers, driven to commence life again in the backwoods from excessive subdivision of their *patrimoine* or family inheritance. On the south shore of the St. Lawrence, the belt of settlement is much wider in the west of the Province, but narrows again towards Quebec, so that French Canada has been described as two continuous villages along the river, from the constant succession of white cottages on their plots of land, with straight parallel roads marking out the ranges of parishes and seigniories. The longitudinal division of the soil on the original sections gives each farmer on the lowest range his strip of shore, marsh-land, plough-land, pasture, and wood. The memory of the old times when a raid of the Iroquois drove the settlers for refuge to the block-house of the *seigneur* is revived on hearing a *habitant* speak of going "au fort" when he resorts to a neighbouring village or little town. The old state of things is slowly vanishing under the influence of modern ideas as regards methods of cultivation, modes of conveyance and the like, but the European visitor may still see the blue-skirted women, with their huge shady caps, at work in the fields; the ox-drawn wagons for the heavier loads; the *charette* or market-cart, half boat, half gig; and the *calèche*, a kind of cabriolet hung by leathern straps between two huge wheels. Nor will he fail to admire the kindly courtesy of the people; the picturesque little

shops and *auberges*; the houses with high roofs, broad eaves and tiny dormer windows; the masses of blooming flowers on the sills and in the little garden-plots, the best of which will adorn the altar of the parish church; the wayside crosses and tiny chapels, and the *chateaux* in their settings of foliage and green turf, some in ruins, some the dwellings of those who represent the families of the Old Régime. As regards the farming in this region, much of the tilling, sowing and reaping is still done by hand; the soil is merely scratched with a rude home-made plough dragged lazily along by a pair of oxen, led by a horse to keep them awake; the harrow is nothing but a rough wooden rake, or a mass of brush-wood fastened to a beam; the scythe and the sickle are in full play in laying low the grass and the corn; and the grain is threshed out by the old-time flail. The produce consists of wheat, barley and oats, maize and buckwheat, pease and beans; the hay is abundant and very good. Flax, hemp, and tobacco are also raised; vegetables, including delicious melons, and all garden-fruits, are of luxuriant growth. The sugar generally used by the *habitans* is made from the sap of the maples, or "sugar bushes", on the hill-sides, though beet-root, for which factories have now arisen, seems likely to supersede the older production. The scenery of the Côte de Beaupré includes, among dozens of fine waterfalls, the Falls of Ste. Anne and of St. Féréol, both on the Grande Rivière Ste. Anne, in a charming forest land, with the water tumbling from shelf to shelf over and amidst grand granitic rocks.

We must now take a glance at the noble St. Lawrence, and one or two of its chief tributaries, in its lower course between Quebec and the Gulf, referring readers who desire to fill the eye and the mind with ample details and delineations to that magnificent work, *Picturesque Canada.* Leaving Quebec by a steamer of the Ontario and Richelieu Navigation Co., in the transparency of morning light and the crispness of the morning air, the traveller passes the green *Ile d'Orléans*, elsewhere seen in this work, and notes, on the northern river-shore, the rocky rampart of the Laurentians, here naked, there forest-clad, and broken from time to time by huge chasms that reveal in the rear still greater mountain-walls leading the eye to fleecy clouds resting on yet more distant summits. At some points, where the sides are scarped into a little foothold at the base of rugged heights, a tiny French hamlet may

be discerned with its glittering chapel-spire. The scene on the southern shore is of a milder type, showing pastoral landscape of house and farm, village and spire, bridge and stream, now and again a fair-sized town, meadows and trees, windmills and convents, all backed by woods and hills. On the northern side, below Ile d'Orléans, *Cap Tourmente* rises grandly from the water's edge to a height of nearly 2000 feet, and the granitic masses of *Cap Rouge* and *Cap Gribaune* somewhat exceed that measure. The river receives hundreds of streams on both banks, those on the south sending turbid floods winding through rich loamy soil, while the northern tributaries, some from districts far away where wild fowl and animals and Indians alone dwell, dash with clear waters down rapids and cascades, or rush along over gravelly beds, loitering at times in deep rock-edged pools rich in salmon and sea-trout. Islands of all sizes and shapes dot the surface of the noble waterway, some green and fertile like the *Ile aux Coudres* and the *Ile Verte*, others rugged reefs or rocky pillars. The view includes, as the steamer hurries on, the sweep of bays with sea-weed-clad rocks, white sandy beaches and broad flats; lighthouses on capes and shoals; buoys marking the channel in their bright red hue or warning from danger with clanging bell; semaphores that signal the passage of ships with swelling sails or with trail of smoke; and, after passing the dark mass of *Mt. Eboulement*, rising to half a mile in height from the water, where the St. Lawrence is 15 miles across, it is not uncommon to see "schools" of white whales, from 15 to over 20 feet in length, gambolling amid the waves. Then we arrive at *Murray Bay* (called properly, by the French, *Malbaie*, a name given by Champlain himself as *Malle Baie* from "the tide that there marvellously runs"), the most popular of summer-resorts on the northern shore of the estuary. The *Murray River* and some adjacent lakes are rich in trout, and the scenery is of grand character, with precipice and gorge, and cloud-clad peaks of mountains haunted by bear and caribou, and by the royal eagle and other birds of prey. Thence the steamer crosses, by a diagonal run of 30 miles, to *Rivière du Loup* (deriving its name from the droves of seals or *loups-marins* that frequented its shoals in early days), a thriving town of 6000 people on the Intercolonial Railway. The *Rivière du Loup Falls* make a plunge of 80 feet into a deep basin in the rocks. Six miles away is *Cacouna*, one of the foremost Canadian

summer-resorts, on a rocky peninsula nearly 400 feet high, with fine beaches at its foot, and a very cool bracing air in the hottest summer months.

Then the voyager, again taking a diagonal course, reaches *Tadousac*, on the northern shore, at the mouth of the famous *Saguenay*. The place lies in a semicircular hollow among rounded knobs of granite and huge *mamelons* or mounds of sand, rising in tiers to the height of above 1000 feet above the Saguenay. This river is one of the greatest natural wonders of the Dominion. In the ordinary sense of the word "river", it appears to the tourist a complete misnomer for water passing through a monstrous chasm, from one to over two miles in width, cleft for 65 miles through the high Laurentian plateau, with walls in an almost unbroken line of naked cliffs composed of syenite and gneiss. The waters of this most grand and gloomy region are as black as pitch from their vast depth, many hundred feet greater than that of the St. Lawrence, and the scenery is indescribable in its sublimity and desolation. We can only here refer to the twin *Capes Trinity* and *Eternity*, 1600 and 1800 feet in height, facing each other across a black gulf, where the sounding-line touches the bottom at 1000 feet. Cape Trinity has its name from being formed of three great precipices, each about 600 feet in height, piled on each other and fringed at the top with gust-blown pines. Cape Eternity is less terrific in aspect, sloping slightly back from the water's edge and being clothed in rich foliage of woods. The echoes aroused by a 68-pounder gun fired near Cape Trinity on the vessel which conveyed the Prince of Wales, in his youth, up the Saguenay, had a marvellous effect in the crash upon crash that came storming down upon the deck, as if every crag were firing a cannon of its own in wrath, till at last the sharp volleys grew hoarser in tone, and the sound slowly retreated bellowing from hill to hill until the distant mountains seemed to groan at the profane intrusion. The vast scale of the Dominion comes home to the traveller who, at the head of the great Saguenay cleft, drives for 150 miles over a score of rivers past the south-west shore of *Lake St. John*, amid little settlements waiting for railways and markets that they may grow into towns; and then, turning due north, passes up the 220 miles of rapid and cascade over which the *River Mistassini* drains the waters of *Lake Mistassini*, not far beyond the border of Quebec Province—a

sheet of water nearly as large as Lake Ontario. Returning now to the St. Lawrence estuary, at the mouth of the Saguenay, we pass great Labradorian rivers on the northern shore, the lighthouse at *Cape Chatte* on the southern, and come lastly to the vast promontory of *Cape Gaspé*, on the open Gulf, a towering mass of sandstone reaching to nearly 700 feet above sea-level. Beyond this, to the south, lies the huge islet called *Percé Rock*, now having one arch about 50 feet high near one end. The mass is 300 feet in height, and being worn to a wedge like a vessel's stem at the western end, it resembles an ironclad 1500 feet in length and 300 feet broad. The face of this grand mass shows a wonderful variety of hues in red and brown sandstone, bright olive and gray limestone, green of agate, purple of jasper, white quartz, and the deep orange of iron ore, displayed against the bright blue of the sky and a sea of emerald green.

Being here in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, we may notice *Anticosti* and the *Magdalen Islands*. Anticosti, an island 140 miles in length, and 30 miles broad in the centre, runs from north-west to south-east, dividing the outer estuary of the St. Lawrence into two channels. The surface of this dreary region, with a dangerous coast, a cruel climate, and a barren soil, is an alternation of swamps and rocks, with hills inland rising to about 600 feet. The former inhabitants, about one thousand in number, striving vainly to win sustenance from the sea and soil, were within recent years removed by the Government to the mainland, and the only permanent dwellers are now a few officials and the keepers of the lighthouses that mark different points of the coast. There are fisheries of salmon, trout, herring and cod, and seals and bears are also hunted by people resorting thither from the mainland. About 130 miles south of the eastern end of Anticosti, between Prince Edward Island and the west coast of Newfoundland, lies the archipelago called the Magdalen Islands, a group of thirteen, mostly connected by spits of sand that are bare at low water. The chief island, *Amherst*, and three others, partly enclose a roadstead of some service as a refuge to vessels caught by gales in the St. Lawrence Gulf. The danger of the coasts, ill-famed for wrecks, is marked in one case by the name *Deadman's Isle*, off the west of Amherst. An important central island of the group, *Coffin Island*, derives its name from Admiral Sir Isaac Coffin, to whom the islands were granted by the Crown in 1798, and whose heir, another Admiral Coffin, is the present

owner. On one of the two desolate *Bird Rocks*, to the north, where a landing can only be effected by means of a huge crane projecting from the cliff, on which visitors are hoisted in a cradle, a powerful light, placed there at great expense and some peril, is maintained by the Canadian Government. The fine woods of fir and spruce which were found there by Jacques Cartier, when he discovered the group in 1534, have long since disappeared through the demand for their excellent building-timber, and the inhabitants, about 6000, mostly Acadian French, have to import Nova Scotian coal as fuel. Imposing cliffs, rising steep from the sea to a height of from 200 to 400 feet, their base ever swathed in the seething foam of the long Atlantic rollers, confront the summer-tourists who come to enjoy sea-trout fishing on the coast, and to catch the splendid trout of the inland streams. The waters around are thronged in the season by American and Canadian fishing-fleets in search of mackerel and cod, and are patrolled by the Dominion cutter *La Canadienne* to prevent foreign vessels from fishing within the three-mile limit. In the winter, some of the people, with profit and peril, hunt the seals swept down upon the shores from the north on floating fields of ice, which sometimes, under a change of wind, drift away again before the hunters can reach the land. The tillers of the soil and tradesmen of the Magdalens are mostly found among the five or six hundred English-Canadians and settlers from Jersey; the French are chiefly fishers and merchants engaged in the large business of canning lobsters, there obtained in great plenty. Hay-crops are abundant from rich old grass-lands, and tillage produces potatoes and oats. The primitive mode of life among the honest, uneducated, poor but not pauperized, industrious people is finely shown in the toils of the women who help in the fishing and in the garden, mend the nets, plough the fields, spin the wool of the sheep, weave it into cloth, make the family-clothes, and fill up spare time with washing, knitting, and cooking. The life-saving appliances are extensive and well-planned, consisting of lighthouses on several points and many rocket-stations, all united by telegraphic wires.

When we pass to the St. Lawrence above Quebec, we find another fine tributary in the *St. Maurice*, rising far to the north in a like maze of lakes and streams to that whence spring the Saguenay and Ottawa, in a wild region visited only by Indians, trappers, Hudson Bay fur-traders and lumbermen. The St. Maurice

discharges its waters into the St. Lawrence at the town of *Trois Rivières* (Three Rivers). About seven miles above this, on the right bank of the tributary, are the St. Maurice Forges, the oldest smelting-furnaces in the Dominion, dealing with deposits of the bog-ore very early known to the Jesuits, here brought in by the *habitans*, who find it on land useless for tillage between two beds of sand. The works are still in full operation, producing iron for car-wheels manufactured at Three Rivers. The St. Maurice is a noble stream, a raging flood in spring and early summer from the melted snow and the profuse rains in its upper course, but navigable in the hottest summer and nearly a quarter of a mile wide for a long distance above its mouth. At 24 miles above Three Rivers are the magnificent *Shawenegan Falls,* almost unrivalled in the world for combined beauty and grandeur of effect. The river, narrowed between two projecting points, is divided by a rocky island into two channels of equal volume. After a brief space of quiet water, the bed suddenly lowers and the tawny water rushes on in foam. The right branch plunges down so steeply as to fling up white fountains perpendicularly into the air, while the left branch, sweeping round the island in successive phases of mirror-like stream and rapids over steps of shelving rock, meets its fellow again almost at right angles. The reunited torrent here has its way blocked by a rugged point, and, flung back upon itself, goes roaring down a rocky trough into a spacious basin entered by the river Shawenegan. This Indian word signifies "needlework", and is believed to have been suggested by the lovely play of colour from seal-brown to snowy white produced in the water's passage over its rocky bed. The canoeist who ascends the Shawenegan river for a little distance between meadows dotted by elms will be enchanted by the view of the *Little Shawenegan Falls*, a double cascade divided by a stretch of steep rapids, the whole presenting, amidst woods of spruce and birch, one of the loveliest and most romantic scenes. The whole of this region is full of charm, including, in the more quiet parts of the river, many islands clothed with beautiful woods; mountain-walls that here and there overshadow the waters; deep, gloomy gorges where tributary streams come in from the distant hills, and, in the country at large, an infinite variety of lakes and streams, rapids and cascades, wild rocks, densely-wooded heights and forest glades.

Before turning to some account of the towns of the Province,

TOBOGGANING IN CANADA.

One of the most popular out-door pastimes in Canada during winter consists in sliding down an ice-covered slope or hill in a toboggan. The toboggan generally used is made of two boards joined together, about ¼-inch thick, curved backward in front, and with two leather thongs attached to the front on either side for steering purposes. Sleighs of a light build, the seat being mounted on runners, are sometimes used; as also long sleds, with a platform on runners capable of accommodating as many as forty people. In this huge "toboggan" the steering is managed by ropes attached to a pair of runners in front that turn on a pivot. In the clear and bracing air of Canada this exercise is most healthy and exhilarating.

WAL PAGET. 67

A TOBOGGANING-SLOPE IN CANADA.

we must note another famous cascade, and then look into the country between the St. Lawrence and the States, the region watered by the Richelieu, the Chaudière, and other goodly rivers, besides innumerable streams. The *Falls of Montmorency*, at the mouth of a small river so named, joining the St. Lawrence on the north side, between 8 and 9 miles below Quebec, are among the most renowned and finest cataracts of the world. Flanked by slender, snowy streams of foam, as beautiful as many boasted Swiss cascades, descending the face of a dark rocky precipice whose top is fringed with shrubs and trees, the main fall, about 50 feet in width, consists of the stream plunging sheer down for 250 feet, always a splendid sight, but most imposing when the river has been swollen by spring floods or autumnal rains. The spectacle can be approached with safety from below, along the river-bank, till the visitor finds himself in the midst of tumult and spray, with a gorgeous rainbow, so close that he can almost touch its beams with outstretched hand, flashing its glories into his enraptured eyes. A mile and a half above the cascade the river rushes wildly for about 230 yards over a series of natural steps, each three or four yards in depth, between dark perpendicular walls of cliff fringed at the top with pines. The massive stone piers on each bank at the head of the great fall are the remains of an ill-constructed bridge, on the suspension principle, which broke down nearly 50 years ago while a *habitant* and his wife, in their market-cart, were driving across. In winter the Montmorency Falls present a sight of singular beauty and grandeur. At the foot of the cataract, the freezing of the spray gradually forms a huge mound of ice and snow, irregularly conical in shape, used as a tobogganing-slope by the people of Quebec who drive out on their sleighs. The district between the St. Lawrence and the New England States, about 10,000 square miles in area, is one of the finest regions of Old Canada—lake and valley, mountain and tarn, river and plain. It is a land which even in modern times, notably in 1663 and 1732, has been shaken by severe earthquakes, mild repetitions of enormous convulsions in a geological past of which the result is seen in lovely winding glens where the streams come down in rapids and cascades; in the uplifting of mountains with towering peaks; and in a confusion of the earth's crust that has brought within easy reach a number of useful and ornamental minerals and earths, lime-

stone and granite, clay and sand, magnesite and slate, serpentine and verd-antique, iron and manganese, copper and gold. Among the finer cascades are the *Chaudière Falls*, on the river of the same name, which on nearing the St. Lawrence, about 12 miles above Quebec, on the southern shore, after a wild course of 100 miles, plunges down for about 100 feet in a cataract famous for its picturesque grandeur of effect. Among the most noted inland waters is *Lake Memphremagog*, having on its shores the noble mountains *Owl's Head*, *Elephantis* and *Mount Orford*, the last reaching a height of 4500 feet. The choicer scenes of this beautiful region include *Bolton Pass*, one of the approaches to Lake Memphremagog and *Lake Massawippi* with its valley.

Quebec city, constantly and fondly called among its people by the ancient Indian name "Stadacona", the favourite style for any new enterprise, from a steamship company to a skating-rink, is a place of great historical interest, as our previous record has shown, and of rarely beautiful position and surroundings. Her history since 1801 includes some disastrous events in the form of fires. Twice, with a month's interval, in the spring of 1845, was the city ravaged by a conflagration which destroyed the homes, in the conjoint result, of 24,000 people, and rendered needful large contributions from the general Canadian people, and from Great Britain. The United States sent a large amount in dollars, after the prompt and generous dispatch of a shipload of provisions and clothing for the foodless and unsheltered sufferers. In June of the year 1865 the crowded wood-built suburbs were swept by another fire which destroyed property to the value of a million dollars and left 3000 people without a roof to cover them. A year had scarcely elapsed when the ancient capital of Canada was visited by another fire which destroyed above 2000 houses, the homes of twenty thousand people, in the suburbs called St. Roche and St. Sauveur, and did great and lasting injury in scattering the industrial population, especially those engaged in ship-building. From this time forward, owing also to the improvement of navigation in the St. Lawrence and to the substitution of steam for sails in the larger vessels of the mercantile marine, Quebec fell into the rear as compared with Montreal, which fast acquired commercial supremacy on the St. Lawrence.

No city in the New World is more grandly placed, more romantic in associations, more picturesque and distinctive in details,

than this sentinel city, this noble portal to the upper St. Lawrence. The view of Quebec displays to the approaching voyager, on the mile-wide strait, the green heights of Lévis on his left hand, fronting the bold, abrupt outlines of *Cape Diamond*, crowned by its fortress. From the blue-green flood of the St. Lawrence—with ships anchored thickly in mid-channel, the surface furrowed by busy tugs and lofty two-decker ferry-steamers passing to and from Point Lévis, while the water-front of the city is thronged with vessels whose masts and funnels partly screen the warehouses from view—the eye directs its glance over tier upon tier of steep-roofed houses and quaint, precipitous streets; up the gray cliff-face decked here and there with masses of foliage; across roofs of shining tin and gilded steeples; along the massive lines of the city walls; beyond the guns of the Grand Battery frowning from a natural terrace midway up the steep; until it rests at last on the ancient citadel dominating all the beauty and grandeur of the scene. The Scot bethinks him of Edinburgh and Stirling; the German recalls Heidelberg and Ehrenbreitstein. The base of the citadel is 333 feet above the water, and its fortifications extend over 40 acres. As the visitor ascends through the Lower Town, the business-quarter of Quebec, with its short, crooked streets diverging at angles of all degrees, he finds in little *Notre Dame Place* a small quaint church with high-peaked roof and antique belfry, one of the oldest buildings in the city, with walls that rose above two centuries ago. In *Champlain Market*, on a business-day in summer, he will see a rare display of flowers and fruit, with light French calèches and the old-style carts of the market-folk, and long-robed priests and jaunty French clerks, and in the costumes and manners that he beholds, and in the tones that fall from the busy throng, he will find it hard to believe that he is making his way among most loyal subjects of the King of Greater Britain. When he has toiled up the ascent of *Break-neck Steps*, or made a circuit round *Mountain Hill*, or risen, as his easiest method, by the elevator, he comes out, at 200 feet above the river, on one of the finest promenades in the world, the grand *Dufferin Terrace*, stretching above two furlongs by the edge of the cliff, and dotted with gay light pavilions for bands of music or for shelter from the sun. This noble place of recreation and point of view, opened to the public in June, 1879, by the Marquis of Lorne and Princess Louise, occupies the site of

the old Château de St. Louis, erected by Champlain in 1620, and destroyed by fire in 1834. The prospect includes, across the river, the picturesque heights of Point Lévis, resounding all day with the shrieks of locomotives, and displaying tier upon tier of villages glittering with spires, and convents embosomed among turf and trees, rising up from the busy town of South Quebec and the buildings of the Grand Trunk and Intercolonial Railways. Lower down the river, the Ile d'Orléans shows its richly-wooded, hamlet-specked expanse, and to the north are seen the light mist of the Montmorency Falls veiling the view of distant woods, and the grand outlines of the Laurentian Range. The terrace is bounded on the right by the steep slope of the *Citadel* with its ramparts, bastions, and cannon atop, and behind lie the shady walks of the *Governor's Garden* containing the pillar, already described in these pages, dedicated to the joint-memory of Montcalm and Wolfe. Space forbids any detailed account of the many important buildings of Quebec. Ecclesiastical establishments meet the eye at every turn. Among the churches, five times as numerous as in most cities of like size, the chief are the *Basilica,* a plain building of cut stone, with a richly-decorated interior that seats 4000 worshippers; the *Methodist Church,* in flamboyant Gothic style; *St. Andrew's* (Presbyterian), a spacious stone Gothic building; *St. Patrick's* (Roman Catholic) and *St. Matthew's* (Episcopal). The *Laval University* occupies three fine buildings, 576 feet long, 5 stories in height, and containing valuable scientific museums, a library of 100,000 volumes, and one of the richest picture-galleries in Canada. The *Ursuline Convent,* already mentioned in connection with Montcalm, has beautiful gardens. The *Hôtel Dieu,* with its convent and hospital, is yearly serviceable, through its charitable sisters, to many thousands of poor patients. The *Custom-House,* on the height above the confluence of the St. Charles and the St. Lawrence, is a fine Doric structure, domed, and with a façade of noble columns, approached by a long flight of steps. The suburbs of *St. John, St. Louis,* and *St. Roche* lie towards the west, the latter being now commercially important with great warehouses and stores. The docks and tidal basins are fine specimens of engineering skill, and at Point Lévis is a large graving-dock. In 1889, the suburb of *St. Sauveur,* with a population of 15,000, was annexed to the city proper, the population of which, by

the census of 1891, just exceeded 63,000. Quebec is provided with eight daily newspapers, five in the French language; with a good continuous supply of water from Lake St. Charles; with gas, and with the electric-light, the power for the latter being furnished by the Montmorency Falls. There are manufactures of worsted, cast-iron, cartridges, machinery, cutlery, nails, musical instruments, leather, boots and shoes, paper and tobacco.

Before dealing with the commercial capital, Montreal, we may note the town of *Trois Rivières* (Three Rivers), third among the cities of the province, with a population of about 12,000, at the junction of the St. Maurice, as we have seen, with the St. Lawrence. The place is the centre of a great trade in lumber and iron, and has an imposing cathedral, as the see of a Roman Catholic Bishop. *Hull*, on the river opposite Ottawa, has a population (1891) of 11,260, with lumber-mills and manufactures of axes, matches, and wooden wares. *Sherbrooke*, in the south, at the junction of the rivers Magog and St. Francis, had over 10,000 people at the census of 1891, with large factories whose machinery is driven by the boundless water-power; a cathedral, a college, beautiful suburbs, and a most fertile and charming country around.

Some exciting incidents have diversified the history of *Montreal* since 1801. The destruction of the Parliament-buildings by fire, through the incendiary violence of a mob, in 1849, has been already given. In the summer of 1852, an accidental conflagration laid waste a large portion of the city, that chiefly composed of the wooden abodes of the French population. Ten thousand people were thus deprived of their homes and household effects, a calamity which was relieved by generous contributions from all the North American provinces. In the following year, some trouble arose from religious differences between the Roman Catholics and Protestants who had hitherto, for the most part, dwelt side by side in peace. The break in this harmonious condition of affairs was caused by the presence of the once-famous Alessandro Gavazzi, an eloquent ex-monk of Bologna who, after leaving the Catholic Church, delivered in the British Isles fervid anti-papal addresses. After a somewhat cold reception in the United States, Gavazzi appeared at Quebec in June, 1853, but the congregation assembled in one of the churches was violently dispersed by a Catholic attack during his discourse. Three days later, he arrived in Montreal, where the authorities

held in readiness a strong force of police, with a company of the 26th Regiment lately arrived from Gibraltar. A body of Irish Catholics broke through the police and forced their way into the church where Gavazzi was lecturing on the points at issue between the rival faiths. A formidable riot, including the free exchange of pistol-shots, then took place, and the orator barely escaped from the building. The church was cleared, but fighting was resumed in the streets; the Riot Act was read by the Mayor, and the military were bidden to fire on the crowd, according to one statement positively denied by that official. An accidental discharge may have occurred from one musket, and the firing was not stopped until the officers struck up the pointed weapons at their personal risk. Five persons killed and forty wounded were the results of the volley, and a very bitter feeling was aroused which caused the regiment to be transferred to Bermuda. In July, 1877, another unfortunate collision occurred between the Roman Catholics and the Orangemen, or more bigoted Protestants, of the city. The day was the famous Twelfth of the month, on so many occasions a source of trouble in the north of Ireland from the Orange demonstrations to commemorate the victory of Aughrim, in 1691, over the Irish Catholics and their French allies. The Orangemen at Montreal had given up their purpose of walking in procession, but, on their return from church, they were attacked by a Catholic mob, and one of the Protestants was shot dead in the street. A public funeral was accorded to the victim, with a strong force of troops under arms to keep the peace. A bitter feeling, sometimes breaking out into riots attended by bloodshed, existed for some years, and in 1878, on July 12th, the peace was only preserved by the presence of 3000 soldiers, the swearing-in of 500 special constables, and the arrest of several Orange leaders who had avowed the intent of reviving the procession to church on the anniversary.

Montreal is justly described as "a microcosm of Canada, in which the Old Canada is side by side with the New". In other words, French and British Canada are here in close contact, having their individuality but little impaired. The great importance of the city is shown in her being the largest of the whole Dominion, the centre of Canadian commerce and finance, and of the chief systems both of railways and canals, and the possessor, through her commercial position, of a vast political influence on Canadian

affairs. From May to November, Montreal is the chief maritime port of the whole vast territory, the head-quarters of a dozen trans-atlantic steamship companies. A thousand miles from the open Atlantic to the east, she is the source also, to the west, of direct communication, by the Canadian Pacific Railway, with the waters of the other ocean, and, as we have seen, across those waters, with China and Japan, with Pacific islands and with Australasian ports. She is the outlet of all the resources of the North-west; she deals with the trade of Duluth on Lake Superior, of Chicago on Lake Michigan, of Collingwood and Goderich on Lake Huron, of Buffalo and Cleveland on Lake Erie, of Hamilton, Toronto, Oswego, and Kingston on Lake Ontario. The Grand Trunk, the South-Eastern, and the Central Vermont railways give her connections with the whole of the United States and the Dominion. The merchants of Montreal receive and distribute the natural and artificial products of every quarter of the world, furs and lumber, and cattle and grain being the staples of their American trade. The commerce grew from imports worth nearly five millions sterling and exports whose value exceeded two millions, in 1870, to imports of over eight millions value and exports worth nearly eight and a quarter millions, in 1895.

The city lies near the junction of the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence, on the south-east side of a large island, 172 miles west of Quebec, and 338 miles east of Toronto. The people, in 1891, numbered 216,550, in proportions, as regards both nationality and religion, which are nearly indicated by the previous decennial census, showing nearly $\frac{4}{7}$ths to be of French descent, over $\frac{1}{5}$th Irish, over $\frac{1}{9}$th English, and over $\frac{1}{12}$th Scottish people. The streets, in a succession of terraces, climb the side of the mountain from which Montreal derives her name, one slope and the summit being reserved for the splendid *Mountain Park*, laid out at a cost of about £100,000, and commanding a superb panoramic view that embraces the valley of the Richelieu and Lake Champlain and the waving line of the Green Mountains in Vermont. The *Island Park*, on *St. Helen's Island* in the middle of the river, is another charming spot of public resort. The city extends over 4 miles in length and 2 in width, with 3 miles of river-frontage turned into wharves backed by long lines of warehouses. There is an eastern portion that is nearly all French, and a western that is

mostly British, with Englishmen and Scots who make and display abundance of wealth. The equipages of *Sherbrooke Street* in the winter season form an almost unsurpassed show of sumptuous sleighs, drawn by costly high-steppers, and containing lovely women clad in the richest furs. The better class of the French have plenty of hoarded wealth, but, with all their hospitality and fondness for society, and no small amount of culture and grace, they do not expend in outward show, on dwellings and sleighs, on dinner-parties and balls, the lavish amounts devoted to these by the leaders of the British section. In the extreme south-west is found an almost exclusively Irish quarter of factories and shops, asylums, churches, and schools. Many prominent citizens in business, politics and society, and in the learned professions, are of Irish descent. The island of Montreal, about 30 miles long and 10 broad, studded with prosperous villages and farms, has the most fertile land in the Province of Quebec, and is famous for its growth of apples of superior flavour. The city presents a rare mingling of the modern and the antique, of poverty and wealth, of squalor and grandeur. There are frame-houses like the Irish hovels of the "ould counthry", and noble streets of palaces in fine-cut stone. Families descended from the old French *noblesse* have social rivals in the less refined representatives of wealth won in trade. Thousands of people can speak and understand only French; thousands more know nothing but the English tongue. There are faces in the streets that tell of undoubted Iroquois descent, and costumes, manners, and talk that recall the peasantry of the older France. The fashionable folk of London, Paris, and New York are reproduced in many of the strollers or drivers on public promenades. On a market-day, the *Bonsecours Market*, Jacques Cartier Square, and adjacent streets are crowded with the primitive carts of the *habitants* from the country around. Move a little westward, and you are in streets where all reminds you of the best commercial quarters of Manchester, Liverpool, or Leeds.

The *Place d'Armes*, once a burying-ground of the earliest settlers, is a railed, tree-planted space, having on the south side the church of *Notre Dame*, one of the largest ecclesiastical buildings on the American continent, which has held 15,000 people within its walls. It displays two towers each 227 feet in height, with a splendid chime of 11 bells, one of which, the largest in America,

weighs over 11 tons. The entire cost of the structure has much exceeded a million sterling. The *Seminary of St. Sulpice*, a theological college with about 300 students, is above two centuries old. *Dominion Square* contains the huge Windsor Hotel, and the Roman Catholic Cathedral, really dedicated to St. James, but called "St. Peter's", because it is a reduced *facsimile* of the great edifice at Rome, being 333 feet in length, and 222 feet in breadth, 258 feet in height, with a dome of nearly 80 feet diameter. The Anglican Cathedral, *Christ Church*, is a gem of Gothic architecture, only rivalled in America by Grace Church in New York, and by the cathedral at Fredericton, New Brunswick. The Methodists and the Presbyterians have also some noble churches, and, among the three Jewish synagogues, one is a fine structure somewhat resembling an old Egyptian temple. The *Champ de Mars*, the largest public square in Montreal, is a historic parade-ground which has witnessed, in succession, reviews of old blue-coated French regiments, in and before the days of Montcalm and Lévis; of British red-coats under Murray and Carleton, and, in modern days, of the Victoria Rifles and other Canadian volunteers. Among the benevolent institutions, the *Hôtel Dieu*, the *Grey Nunnery* (a hospital, not a convent) and the *Royal Victoria Hospital*, are conspicuous. Educational buildings, the *M'Gill University*, mentioned above, and colleges of the various denominations, are numerous, and art-galleries, museums, and fine libraries are not wanting. The new station of the Canadian Pacific Railway is a really palatial structure; the Victoria Bridge has been already described. The water-supply is brought by an aqueduct from the St. Lawrence above the Lachine Rapids, and is stored, to the amount of 36½ million gallons at a time, in a great reservoir hewn from the solid rock far up the mountain side. The amusements include excellent matches at various Lacrosse grounds, and the Montreal Hunt Club affords the best sport of its kind in America. In February of each year, in the mid-winter season, the Winter Carnival furnishes spectacles unequalled in the world for picturesque beauty. A great castle of transparent ice is formed, and the city is made gay by skating tournaments and masquerades, and by parades of the best snow-shoers, perhaps, to be found on the continent. At the close of the festival, the ice castle, illuminated within by electric light, and flaming with white unearthly radiance,

is stormed by lines of assailants winding, torch in hand, down the mountain-side, clad in strange costumes, and rushing against the walls amid a storm of rockets, a glow of coloured fires, and the most gorgeous forms of the pyrotechnic art. Turning to matters of more serious import, we find in Montreal large manufactures of boots and shoes, textile clothing, tobacco, and railway apparatus, with rubber-factories, saw-mills, the making of tools, the weaving of cotton and silk, and a great variety of small industries. About fifty newspapers are published in the city, including six French and five English dailies, and ten French and eight English weekly papers. Eight miles away, the pretty quiet old town of *Lachine*, with houses of steep gables and dormer-windows, nestling amid the green of ancient trees, supplies a place of summer residence for Montreal citizens. The running of the famous Lachine Rapids in the steamer is an exciting and perfectly safe experience for the traveller from Europe.

To sum up our account of Quebec Province, we remark that this fine agricultural territory, with an excellent climate, grows in perfection all the usual cereals, with grasses and maize, and is rich in cattle and their produce. Fever, ague, and malaria are unknown. The air in winter is very cold, but always dry and clear, and the snow which covers the ground from November to April is readily formed by the pressure of traffic into excellent roads for the conveyance of all burdens by sleighs. The province is divided into 63 counties, and, being administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, has a Legislative Council or Upper House, of 24 members, holding their seats for life after nomination by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, and a Legislative Assembly of 74 members, elected by manhood suffrage every four years, or at shorter intervals, with no property qualification.

CHAPTER VII.

Ontario, Manitoba, Keewatin.

Boundaries, area, population, and physical features of Ontario—Niagara River and Falls—The Thousand Islands—Brockville—Ottawa River—The lumber industry—Lake Ontario—Number of thriving towns—Georgian Bay—The Muskoka lakes—Hunting and fishing—Manitoulin Islands—District of the Upper Lakes—Lake Superior—Ottawa city—Toronto—Hamilton—London—Kingston—Brantford—Guelph—Galt—St. Thomas—Windsor—General progress of the province. Boundaries, area, and population of Manitoba—Its early history—Lord Selkirk's Highland colony—Its difficulties and sufferings—Becomes finally established—Policy of the Hudson Bay Company—Progress of the province—The Red River rebellion—Expedition under Colonel Wolseley—Natural features of the country—Climate—Agriculture—Winnipeg city—Brandon—Portage-la-Prairie—Trade returns. District of Keewatin—Extent and population—The Nelson and Churchill rivers—Arrival at York Factory of the annual ship from England.

The history of the Province of Ontario has been already sufficiently noticed. This most populous part of the Dominion, very irregular in shape, lies mainly between 45 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and 75 to 95 degrees of west longitude. Bounded on the east and north-east by the North-East Territory and Quebec, on the north and north-west by James Bay (an inlet of Hudson Bay), Keewatin, and Manitoba, and on the south-east and south by the St. Lawrence, Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, and by the State of Minnesota, Ontario has an area of about 220,000 square miles or nearly 4½ times the area of England, and a population, in 1891, numbered by census at 2,114,000, giving an average density of about 10 per square mile, and an increase of nearly 10 per cent since 1881. The inhabitants, in point of religious belief, are divided into Anglicans, 386,000; Roman Catholics, 358,000; Presbyterians, 453,000; Methodists, 654,000; and Baptists, 105,000; an enumeration in which we observe the vast preponderance of Protestants, especially of Nonconformists and members of the Scottish churches, and the small number of Roman Catholics as contrasted with those of Quebec Province. The British element is therefore very strong in numbers, and the French and the Irish, by comparison, of insignificant amount. There is the high ground of the Laurentians in the south-east, passing westwards round Lakes Simcoe and part of Huron, and the central district contains the watershed between the basins of the Great Lakes and of the

St. Lawrence and Ottawa. The chief rivers of Ontario are the tributaries of the Ottawa, which forms a part of the north-eastern boundary.

A detailed description of the scenery of this beautiful country is quite beyond our limits, and would merely repeat much of what has been already given concerning Quebec Province, in the way of lakes and rivers, woods and cascades, trout-teeming brooks and other scenes invested with natural charms. Of *Niagara Falls*, the much-described in word-painting and every kind of pictorial art, we must here shun all account beyond reminding readers that the river Niagara ("Thunder of Waters" is the meaning of its Indian name) runs a course of 36 miles northwards from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario, and forms a boundary between New York State and Canada; that in the 36 miles the river has a total descent of 325 feet—about 50 feet in the rapids above the Falls, about 165 in the Falls themselves, and 110 in the rapids below the Falls; that *Grand Island*, 4 miles above the Falls, is nearly 10 miles long; that *Goat Island* divides the straight-fronted *American Fall*, 1100 feet wide, from the *Horseshoe* or *Canadian Fall*, with an outline of 2640 feet or half a mile in extent; that they are the most famous falls in the world, carrying down 15 million cubic feet of water per minute; and that, as a far more important fact to British subjects in general and to Canadians in particular and to visitors most of all, the Canadian side of the river has been formed into the *Queen Victoria Niagara Falls Park*, about 154 acres in extent, including *Dufferin Island* and *Cedar Island*, in the *White Horse Rapids*, above the Horse Shoe cataract.

The Falls occur about 14 miles from Lake Ontario, and for 7 miles of this lower course of the Niagara river, the stream is shut in between steep walls of rock, from 200 to 350 feet in height. It is remarkable that, for some distance below the cataract, still water prevails, and a near approach can be safely made in a boat. The fact is that the prodigious weight of the descending water causes it to sink, only to reappear, 2 miles below, in the form of the famous and terrific *Whirlpool Rapids*, where the waters rush along with such swift tumult that the middle of the current is 30 feet higher than the sides. About a furlong below the Falls, a new suspension-bridge, replacing that which was carried away by a gale on January 10th, 1889, takes carriages and foot-passengers across

the river, and two railway-bridges, one on the cantilever principle, about 100 yards apart, are carried over it 1½ miles further down. At the end of the seven-mile gorge the river comes foaming down into an expansion of its bed which forms a beautiful bay, whence the water, now becoming mirror-smooth, glides on towards Lake Ontario. The Niagara district is rich in varied interest. The little town of *Niagara*, at the river-mouth on the Canadian side, was the first capital of Upper Canada, as we have seen in previous historical narrative which has also dealt with the death of the heroic General Brock on Queenston Heights and with other incidents of war between Canada and the United States. The climate of the region is among the finest in North America, and the eye is delighted by the cultivated beauty of a fertile and richly-wooded soil. No part of the Dominion is so rich in fruit—peaches that are annually shipped to an amount far exceeding a million baskets; apples and pears; cherries and plums; melons and grapes; walnuts and chestnuts; quinces and even figs. The beauty of the peach-orchards, estimated to contain nearly half a million trees in the district, either in their blooms of spring, or under their summer loads of pink and white and gold-tinted globes, is beyond description.

The *Thousand Islands*, as they are called, being in reality about 1800 in number, large and small, extend for about 40 miles down the St. Lawrence, beginning at its issue from Lake Ontario, and afford a succession of exquisite little views in their rockwork of gray gneiss, their variety of size and foliage and height and form, some low-lying amidst a fringe of water-lilies; others rising high and steep, topped with pine and fir; some bare of vegetation, others clad in shrubbery and vines. The water displays diverse charms in foaming torrents and in glassy pools. Some of the islands have cottages thereon; others, in summer, show the tents of parties camping out; some are built over with fanciful structures of pagoda-style, and connected with adjacent islets by tiny bridges. In this paradise of canoeists, one of the largest islands contains the *Thousand Island Park*, with a post-office, public buildings, shops and boat-houses, a swarming resort of summer visitors. In passing down the St. Lawrence, the traveller, after the Thousand Islands, comes to beautiful *Brockville*, named from him who fell at Queenston Heights, a little place bright with gilded spires and

turrets rising above the masses of foliage that shade the streets. The *Long Sault Rapid*, the finest in the St. Lawrence, tosses a large steamer as if it were a tiny boat, at a point where the river-channel is divided by a gloomy-looking, thickly-wooded island.

The lower course of the *Ottawa River*, between the St. Lawrence and the political capital of the Dominion, displays pretty scenery of woods and hills, rapids and fine lakes formed by the expansion of the stream, lumber-laden barges and great timber-rafts. Above the city, in the *Upper Ottawa*, we have a continuous panorama of natural beauties not surpassed on the American continent. Here may be seen the quiet charm of pastures and wheat-fields, villages and farmsteads, bordering on waters unruffled by aught but a breeze; an archipelago of some hundreds of little isles; torrents that make toys of the largest trees; cascades coming down from dizzy heights; mountains arrayed in ancient woods. The *Grande Chute* of the *Calumet*, finest of the Upper Ottawa cascades, has a sublimity and a beauty of peculiar effect in its background of dark cliffs, gloomy with pines; its fall of 60 feet, divided into three, two of vast volume, and one a single silvery thread, all meeting in snowy foam, with a veil of mist above, in a huge basin where the waters rush madly to and fro. One stretch of the Ottawa, 20 miles long, dark and navigable, with mountains close to its northern edge, is known as *Deep River*, marked at one point by the tall, precipitous, cave-dotted *Oiseau Rock*, a mountain-bluff of gloomy grandeur. It is in this region that the lumber-industry is seen in perfection, with its exploring parties "prospecting" for new scenes of profitable work; its groups of log-huts for a party of fellers; the supply-trains of provisions arriving through the snow; the roll-ways to carry down logs from the hills to the stream; the timber-slides, or artificial channels for the avoidance of the more violent cascades; the saw-mill in the backwood-wilds.

In passing westwards along the northern shore of *Lake Ontario*, the traveller by the Grand Trunk Railway goes through or near a number of flourishing towns, the larger of which will be hereafter separately described—Kingston, Belleville (population over 12,000, on the lovely Quinté Bay), Picton, Cobourg, Port Hope, Bowmanville, Oshawa, Whitby, Hamilton, and St. Catharine's, away to the east, on the south side of the lake, near Niagara Falls. Natural beauties, tillage, and busy trade by water and land, manufactures

and admirable sport with fishing-rod and gun, are all commingled in this delightful region. West from Toronto, in the great peninsula that lies between Lake Ontario on the east, Georgian Bay (the spacious inlet of Lake Huron) on the north, Lake Huron on the west, and Lake Erie on the south, we find Guelph and Galt, Brantford and Woodstock, London, Simcoe, and St. Thomas, Stratford and Peterborough, Windsor and Chatham; Sarnia, near the mouth of the St. Clair River as it joins Lake Huron; Goderich and Kincardine on that great inland water's south-eastern shore. *Goderich* is a charming summer resort, on the western border of a rising and most fertile agricultural district. *Kincardine,* chief market-town of Bruce County, has large and valuable fisheries, along with *Southampton,* on the coast to the north, both partly peopled by the descendants of hardy Scottish Highlanders who migrated thither above a generation ago. The town of *Owen Sound,* on an inlet of Georgian Bay, has ship-building and a growing trade in the apples which, with plums and pears, strawberries and other fruits, are abundantly raised in this fertile Huron territory. On the eastern shore of Georgian Bay, we arrive at the glorious country known as that of the *Muskoka lakes.* This region of countless inland waters, varying in size from many square miles to a few acres, retaining some of the Indian names as in Muskoka and Couchiching, or with appellations due to early French and British times in Lakes Rosseau, Simcoe and Joseph, or with titles derived from natural objects in Sparrow and Bass, Deer and Pine and Garter Snake Lakes, was of old inhabited by Indians of the great Huron tribe. A railroad now traverses the district as far north as Lake Nipissing; the lakes and streams are dotted with villages and summer-hotels, and steamboats ply upon the larger lakes, whose waters, like those of the smaller specimens, numbering in all about 1000, are deep and clear, and cool in the hottest season, swarming with trout and bass and perch, while the covers and reed-beds abound in game-birds, and the woods are the haunt of many a deer. In the south, *Lake Simcoe,* a noble sheet of water 30 miles long by 16 broad, named from the first Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada, has on its western shore the town of *Barrie,* with a population of 5000, a delightful summer resort for fishing, canoeing, and yachting-parties. At the head of Simcoe a passage called the Narrows leads into Couchiching or the "Lake

of Many Winds", with the pretty town of *Orillia* lying in very clear pure air in the highest settled district of the Province, 750 feet above Toronto. At a point on this lake is a village of Ojibway Indians, the last remnants of the powerful tribe that once dwelt in this region. Proceeding still northwards, we reach *Lake Muskoka*, the largest of the series, near to the delightful *Lakes Rosseau* and *Joseph*, the former having many beautiful inhabited islands, the latter marked by bolder scenery than many of its fellows. Of waterfalls and rapids, islets and bays, woods and rocks, and every kind of natural attraction short of the sublime, it is useless to attempt to give details here. We can only excite the sportsman's desires by a reference to a writer who, knowing the district well, declares that "if a man can stand outdoor life and live on venison, trout, bass, partridges, ducks, pork, tea, and crackers, there is no better place to go to in America that is as accessible. A man can go there in July, August, September, or October with comfort, and shoot deer and catch trout to his heart's content." Another writer tells of that splendid fish, the maskinonge, a dweller in some of the Muskoka Lakes. This fiercest of the prey of the troller's hook and line and rod, with an average weight of 12 pounds, will often give an hour's fight to his captor; the natives haul him in, after hooking, by main strength applied to tackle like a small clothes-line.

At the northern end of Lake Huron, the *Manitoulin Islands* stretch eastwards for about 120 miles to the entrance of Georgian Bay. The most westerly, Drummond Island, belongs to the State of Michigan, the rest to the Province of Ontario. *Grand Manitoulin*, the largest of the group, is 80 miles long and 28 wide, this and Cockburn, an island to the west, being to a large extent covered with pine-woods. All the group, with a population of about 2000, have striking natural features, deep inlets and large lakes being those most prominent in the chief island. The district of the Upper Lakes, in the north-east of Ontario, is another region remarkable for natural beauties. It lies between the Muskoka country and the Province of Quebec, and along the northern coast of Huron. In the centre, *Lake Nipissing*, connected by French River with Georgian Bay, is a great mass of water 50 miles long by 20 in its greatest breadth, amidst country excellent for farming, with ample water-power, noble timber in forests that abound in moose, caribou

(American reindeer), red-deer, and bears, and with rivers, lakes, and coverts that supply the sportsman and trapper with fish, hares, swans, geese, ducks, wild turkeys, partridges, quail, silver-gray, red, and black foxes, otters, martens, beavers, and minks. The Laurentian hills in this region display fir-crowned crags of every shape, streams running between walls of bright green bushes, or foaming over stony beds, and islet-strewn lakes of countless number and diverse form and size. At the western end of the Northern Channel, in Lake Huron, above the Manitoulin archipelago, we reach the town and rapids called *Sault Ste. Marie* and pass into Lake Superior. The northern shore, between the Sault (pronounced "Soo") and the river Nepigon, is a desolate country, traversed at some distance inland by the Canadian Pacific Railway. "Nepigon" is the name of a strait, a bay, a river, and a lake, the river being one of the most famous trout-streams in America. The characteristic rock of this country is trap, thrust up from the earth's interior in a molten state, and cooled in perpendicular columns forming a lofty, abrupt, indented wall on the northern edge of Lake Superior, and dividing Nepigon Bay from the Lake by a mass 15 miles in length, sometimes attaining a height of 1000 feet. Exquisite scenery of foliage and falls, and rocks of varied and vivid hues, are found on the *Nepigon River* and some of the smaller lakes. The canoeist has perilous sport among rapids, and the angler revels in trout, of which 6 and 7 lbs. are ordinary weights. On the shore of Lake Superior, *Thunder Cape* rises in grandeur to the height of 1350 feet, overlooking *Thunder Bay* with an island at its entrance like a vast monitor at anchor. We are reminded again of the vastness of the Dominion when we learn that at Prince Arthur's Landing, still within the limits of Ontario Province, we are above 700 miles from Ottawa westwards, while 80 miles of Ontario Province yet lie eastwards of that city. The Kamanistiquia River, entering Thunder Bay by three mouths a little south of Prince Arthur's Landing, attracts tourists by the grand and beautiful *Kakabeka Falls*, above a hundred feet in depth over rocks of slate, in transparent amber-hued water fronted by creamy fleecy foam. The cataract descends upon a hard bed of rock with the roar of successive explosions, shooting out the spray into the air swiftly at a sharp angle, instead of rising slowly, as at Niagara, in a veil of mist. Our last stage westwards in Ontario

brings us to the eastern shore of the lovely *Lake of the Woods*, whose further side belongs to Manitoba. The Ontario portion is so covered with islands that the canoeist, gliding over the smooth water, might well believe himself to be among the Thousand Islands on the St. Lawrence.

The city of *Ottawa*, as the capital of the Canadian Dominion, claims the post of honour in our notice of Ontario towns. This beautiful place lies on the south side of the Ottawa River, 120 miles above its junction with the St. Lawrence. Nearly opposite is the mouth of the *Gatineau*, flowing south through Quebec Province, with the town of Hull, a place of 12,000 people, mostly French-Canadians engaged in the lumber-trade, on its right bank at the junction with the Ottawa. In 1823, Colonel By, an officer of the Royal Engineers, was sent into this district to survey and choose a line for the canal, the Rideau, which was intended to join the tidal waters of the St. Lawrence with the great lakes. The village of Bytown, erected on a spot then surrounded by grassy dells, forest-trees wreathed with wild vines, and hills clothed with the noble white-pine, became in due course the town of Ottawa, a name adopted in 1854, when the place was created a "city". Four years later, as we have seen, the city became the administrative capital of Canada. No site in the Dominion, save that of Quebec, is more grandly picturesque than that of Ottawa, at a point where the Rideau joins the Ottawa by two 40-feet cascades of marvellous beauty whose shifting folds gave the river its French name, equivalent to "curtain". The Ottawa River also goes down over the magnificent *Chaudière Falls*, 40 feet high and 200 yards wide, below which a fine suspension-bridge is flung across the stream. The *Rideau Canal*, on its way to Kingston (Lake Ontario), passes through the centre of the city, but is now little used, as other waterways have been made to avoid the St. Lawrence rapids. The chief open spaces of the city are the beautiful *Public Gardens* (above the deep gorge through which the canal passes, while beyond the locks rise the steep wooded slopes of *Parliament Hill*), and *Cartier Square*, a great piece of ground for military reviews, popular gatherings, and football and lacrosse matches, containing the vast red-brick drill-shed and armoury of the militia and volunteers, and the very extensive and comely stone-built Normal School. The rifle range is important as the

scene, not only of practice, but of the yearly meetings of the Dominion Rifle Association, representing all the Provinces, when the choicest shots of the country compete for the honour of selection into the team sent across the Atlantic to contend, no longer at Wimbledon, but at Bisley, in west Surrey, against their fellow-subjects in the British Isles. Ottawa is at this time alive with uniforms red, dark-green and gray; with the crack of rifles, the music of bands, with Canadian ladies in their brightest array, and with the martial feeling that stirs the city. The public buildings are in general handsome and are all of stone; the churches are of no remarkable merit; the educational structures are numerous and well equipped. The *Parliament Buildings* are justly famed. Placed high on the bank of the Ottawa, built in Italian or twelfth century Gothic of cream-coloured sandstone improved in hue by time and weather, these noble erections combine simplicity, grace, and strength. The central block, containing the two chambers for the Commons and the Senate, is surmounted by a pinnacled and steepled tower 220 feet in height. Behind them lies the Parliamentary Library, a structure of much grace with flying buttresses and a lofty dome, beneath which the central interior shows Marshall Wood's marble statue of the Queen. Another block, containing the offices of the Governor-General and the rooms of the Privy Council, is marked by a tall and beautiful tower, and a third structure includes the Departmental government-offices. By a bridge across the Ottawa, the city is connected with the Canadian Pacific Railway running along the northern bank, while the Grand Trunk and the Canada Atlantic communicate with the Intercolonial Railway on the east and with the Canada Pacific Transcontinental line.

Ottawa, like Quebec, has an Upper and a Lower Town in a certain sense—the official and fashionable quarter, and the business locality. French and English life and language, and the Roman Catholic and Protestant faiths here, as in Quebec, dwell side by side. The population, in 1891, was 44,150, of whom perhaps one-half were French and Irish Catholics. The main industries of the city are connected with the vast lumber trade of the Ottawa and the Gatineau and the great back-country whence those rivers flow. These industries are gathered in the quarter round the Chaudière Falls where artificial structures in the form of embankments and piles have been made to intercept and use the enormous water-

power for the numerous saw-mills. The air is full of the scent of saw-dust from pine and fir; the scream of the instruments is deafening, and the sight of the operations—continued day and night in the season—is wonderful after dark to a stranger's eye as the electric-light throws its intensity of lustre, relieved by the blackness of its shadows, on the busy crowd of workers, on the dark logs hauled up from the water to the mills, and on the steel as it dashes up and down, tearing the logs into planks. Circular-saws, on every side, seeming motionless in the speed which hides their teeth from the gaze, rend their shrieking way through the wood that is forced against the humming disc. The visitor to Ottawa in the lumber season may have a novel and exciting experience in shooting a lumber-slide—a long, flat-bottomed, sharply-sloping channel, massively made of timber and stone work—on a raft composed of a score of squared logs that exactly fit into the passage-way. Amid a shower of spray as the raft drops down at the end of each slide, the tiro is conducted, by shoot after shoot, to the floating platform of wood at the bottom. At *Rideau Hall*, a plain, old-fashioned, comfortable building, a mile from the city, which forms the residence of the Governor-General, the people in winter have one of the best toboggan-slides in Canada, from a stout timber structure at the top of a high mound, whence a huge boarded trough to receive the snow runs at a steep angle to the foot of the hill.

The beautiful city, in April, 1900, was visited by a terrible calamity in one of the greatest conflagrations of the nineteenth century. At 11 o'clock in the morning of Thursday, April 26th, fire broke out in a boarding-house at Hull, in the centre of the town, which consisted chiefly of wooden buildings inhabited by the operatives employed in the large saw-mills and the paper and pulp works. It spread with great rapidity, and a large district was enveloped in flames. Unhappily for the town itself, and for its more important neighbour Ottawa, beyond the river, a northerly gale was blowing, and the wind carried the fire, consuming in its progress five paper, pulp, match, and woodenware factories, towards the Chaudière Bridge. The Hull and Ottawa Fire Brigades fought the flames in vain, and the wind, seizing burning boards in its fierce grasp, bore them across the river to the piles of lumber and the saw-mills on the Ottawa side. The Export Lumber Company's yards were the first

prey, and thence the fire flew across the western portion of Ottawa to the open country. Around Chaudière Bridge was a wall of fire hundreds of feet high, cutting off from return the portion of the Ottawa fire-brigade which had hurried across to help the Hull people. All the poorer parts of the city, and the Union Station of the Canadian Pacific Railway, were destroyed; the railway-clerks were able to save most of the papers. The advance of the flames was so rapid that persons living along the line of the fire, striving to save their goods, only saw them burned up as they stood piled in the street. Ambulances were busily removing the sick from houses to hospitals. The better part of Ottawa was saved through being cut off by the rocky cliffs which formed an impassable barrier to the flames. The sight from Parliament Hill was one of appalling grandeur. By one o'clock in the afternoon a bank of red flame stretched across the southern horizon, and above the flames was a dense mass of black smoke, transformed by the bright sun into amber and fleecy cloud. All business was suspended in the city, Parliament meeting at 3 p.m., only to adjourn until the following Tuesday, May 1st, on the motion of the Premier, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who announced that the Militia had been called out, and that firemen had been summoned from Montreal and other towns. The loss of life was, happily, very small, being limited to seven in both towns, two women and five men, the latter, however, including Mr. Benoit, Chief of the Fire Department of Hull.

The extent of the conflagration may be judged by the facts that, in Ottawa, the flames spread along the water-front for a mile, and that the fire-area was about five square miles. About 2500 buildings were destroyed, and nearly 20,000 persons were left for the time homeless and destitute. The fierceness of the flames was such that buildings of brick and stone were swept away. About midnight the efforts of the fire-brigade began to produce some visible effect, and by daylight on April 27th the progress of the fire had been stayed. It is probable that only a sudden change of wind in the course of the evening prevented the utter destruction of the Dominion capital. The flames reached as far as the escarpment of the Parliament Buildings, and the bushes at the foot of the hill were repeatedly ignited by blazing

timber as it floated down from the lumber-mills along the banks. The Governor-General, Lord Minto, was instrumental in saving the life of a fireman who, cut off near the city water-works, had no chance of escape except by swimming the stream, at that point 50 yards in width. Lord Minto shouted to him to jump in, and helped him ashore on the east bank by clambering down the crib-work and grasping his hand. Prompt and energetic efforts to repair the damage were made on the spot, in the United States, and in many parts of the Empire. The Dominion Government subscribed 100,000 dollars, the Provincial Government 25,000. Banks, business-houses and private citizens at once furnished 75,000 dollars for immediate wants. Large sums of money came from London, Chicago, Portland (Maine), and many other quarters, and a "Relief Organization Committee" was busily engaged in housing, feeding, and finding employment for thousands of the people deprived of home and work. A feeling of gratitude was aroused in the Dominion by the warm and practical sympathy quickly shown in the mother-country. The tidings of the disaster had scarcely spread through England before cable-messages were pouring in to Ottawa with the offer of funds. In this way British citizens at home were enabled to display their sense of the splendid loyalty and courage of Canadians in connection with the South African War.

Toronto, named from an Indian (Huron) word signifying "place of meeting", is the second city of the Dominion in size and wealth, and the commercial as well as administrative capital of Ontario. As regards the history of this great Canadian city, we have seen that it was founded in 1793, with the name of York, by Governor Simcoe; that it was twice taken, plundered, and burned by the United States forces in 1812; that in 1834 it became a "city" under its present name; and that, three years later, the place saw trouble at the time of the Mackenzie rebellion. In 1850, Toronto was made the seat of government for Canada, as again in 1856, two years before the Queen's choice finally settled Ottawa as the capital. Since that date the history of the place has been almost wholly one of peaceful and remarkably rapid progress. Taking her whole career, in 1793 Governor Simcoe, when he crossed Lake Ontario from Niagara town to choose a site for a new capital that should be removed from United States' hostility, found the huts of

two Indian families on the ground. In 1834, the population did not reach 10,000; in 1861, it was about 45,000; in 1871, 56,000; ten years later, 86,500; and in 1891 that number had risen to over 181,000, including the people of some annexed suburbs. The extension of trade with the interior and the growth of the railway system were marked in Toronto by the construction of huge blocks of wholesale stores, and of the noble edifice in richly-carved stone, with many medallion busts of great explorers and navigators, that forms the Custom-house of this flourishing emporium. *Osgoode Hall*, the seat of the chief law-courts, in the Italian style, and the Lieutenant-Governor's residence, are also very handsome buildings. The approach by water to the city that lies on the north-western shore of Lake Ontario discloses a beautiful panorama of dome and turret, arch and spire, with a fringe of trees on a spit of land in front, and a cliff-like eminence on the right. This peninsula, a kind of natural breakwater for the harbour, has been now reduced by Lake Ontario's waves into islands that form a favourite water-side suburb and marine resort, with water-meadows, promenades, hotels, and picturesque villas scattered here and there; on the east lies the fine building of the Royal Canadian Yacht Club. The harbour, which in summer, besides the constant commercial activity, often witnesses rowing contests, becomes in winter a 4000-acre sheet of gleaming ice, traversed by ice-boats with their frosted sails. For nearly eight miles along the rim of the lake the city extends, from the mouth of the Don on the east to the Humber on the west, her roofs interspersed with the green crowns of the countless horse-chestnuts and elms which delightfully shade the streets in summer, and with the ground sloping gently upwards to the wooded line of the Davenport Hills. The principal thoroughfares are *King Street* and *Yonge Street*, at right angles to each other in the business-heart of the town. Among the chief ecclesiastical edifices of Toronto, which contains above 120 churches and chapels, and is marked by a reverential and quiet observance of the seventh day of rest, we may note the *Anglican Cathedral, St. James*, a noble perpendicular Gothic structure, with a spire 316 feet in height; the *Presbyterian St. Andrew's*, a stately building in the Norman style; the *Metropolitan Methodist Church*, containing the greatest organ in Canada, with 53 stops and over 3300 pipes; and the *Roman Catholic Cathedral, St. Andrew's*. Like Quebec, though not to

the same extent, Toronto has at times suffered from accidental fires. Three churches occupying the present site of the Anglican Cathedral were thus destroyed, and in 1890 the buildings of Toronto University, the main structure of which was the finest piece of college-architecture in the New World, perished in the same way. The grand and very valuable library was lost with the buildings, but both have now been restored in a fashion well worthy of the Canadian Dominion's energetic, patriotic, and prosperous sons, and of the originals whose loss they had to deplore. The chief pleasure-grounds of the city are the *Queen's Park*, with a noble avenue of horse-chestnuts and elms a mile in length and 120 feet broad; and the *Horticultural Gardens* of 10 acres. The chief educational establishments have been noticed in the general account of the Dominion; there are several fine libraries, a large Opera-house, a high-class Music Hall, and good buildings of every kind for the purposes of an advanced and progressive civilization. The aristocratic suburb of *Rosedale* has a lovely ravine of grass, streamlet, and trees, crossed by a lofty iron bridge, and Lacrosse Grounds where the finest players in Canada may be seen. As contrasted with French Quebec, and Anglo-French Montreal, Toronto is a thoroughly English city in appearance and in social character. *Jarvis Street* is described by a recent traveller as "one of the very prettiest roadways in the world; an avenue of well-to-do dwelling-houses all standing back a long way from the road, with the sweetest of English gardens and lawns in front, no two houses being alike, and all vying with each other in quaintness and picturesqueness of design. On a blazing day . . . it was a real treat to walk down this shady street for a mile or so, and gaze at the refreshing green lawns and bright flower-beds, from among which often came the tinkling plash of a little fountain, while from lattice and verandah dense masses of cool, feathery climbing plants hung in festoons, lighted up here and there by brilliant clusters of blossom." With a vast lake-trade in lumber, fruit, grain, coal, and cattle; with shipping entering her harbour, in 1890, to the amount of over 300,000 tons during the open-water season; and connected by railway-lines with all the east and west and north and south, Toronto had, in 1895, imports to the value of nearly 4 millions sterling, and exports worth over £800,000.

To the south-west at the western extremity of Lake Ontario,

on the harbour called Burlington Bay, inside Burlington Beach, a great sand-bar several miles long and 1000 feet in width, with a canal cut through to the outer waters, lies the prosperous city of *Hamilton*. Founded in 1812, when a settler named George Hamilton cut up his farm into "town-lots"; rising into some note with the cutting of the Burlington Canal, in 1824, through the sand-beach; ravaged by cholera and fire in 1832, and at one time threatening to outstrip Toronto, Hamilton had, in 1891, a population of 49,000. It is a cathedral city of the Anglicans (diocese, Niagara) and of the Roman Catholic bishop of Hamilton. The public buildings are handsome and substantial, and on the steep hill behind, called the *Mountain*, a part of the Niagara escarpment, are many stately private residences. The town lies in a splendid amphitheatre with a broad plain at its base sloping to Burlington Bay, and possesses a novel and charming feature in *The Gore*, a spacious and lovely triangular public garden in the heart of the place, with rich flowers and shrubbery, and a fine fountain to spread coolness around on sultry days. Some of the chief factories of iron, cotton, and woollen goods that are found in the Dominion, and the making of sewing-machines, glass-ware, and boots, contribute to the prosperity of the people of Hamilton. The agricultural district around is very flourishing, and the city possesses the finest draught-horses in the Dominion, belonging to Mr. Hendry, "the Pickford of Canada", who owns here and elsewhere about 5000 horses, bred from Canadian mares and Shire, Clydesdale, or "Suffolk Punch" sires. These animals, often exceeding 17 hands in height, fetch £80 for an ordinary pair, and two of them can draw 9 tons' weight on wheels.

About midway between Hamilton and the St. Clair river, in the peninsula between Lakes Erie and Huron, we find *London*, with a population, in 1891, of 32,000. The figures may make a British Londoner smile, but the Canadian town at least resembles its original in being situated in the county of Middlesex, on the river Thames, which, in its upper course, hums its way over pebbles through the Oxford glens of a beautiful valley, and has the city at the junction of its two branches. There are many fine buildings in streets named after the best-known thoroughfares of the British metropolis; and the bridges ("Blackfriars" and "Westminster"), the market ("Covent Garden"), the two parks ("Hyde"

and "Victoria") and the cathedral, follow the same fashion. Petroleum refineries, tanneries, foundries, mills, and other hives of industry, are sources of material wealth, and several colleges, a convent, a hospital, and Anglican and Roman Catholic bishops and their clergy, provide for other needs. The advanced condition of Ontario stock-farming is seen at Mr. Gibson's Belvoir estate, a few miles away, where a farm of 300 acres showed the British delegates in 1890 a splendid Durham bull ("8th Duke of Leicester"), about 70 pure-bred shorthorns, 60 pure-bred South Downs, 40 or 50 pedigree Berkshire pigs, and 100 beautiful turkeys. We learn from the same authority that the owner, a Lincolnshire man, "began with nothing"; that his farm is worth many thousands of dollars; and that on part of his land he grew, in 1890, 42 bushels (5¼ quarters) of wheat per acre.

Kingston, at the north-east end of Lake Ontario, and near the southern entrance of the Rideau Canal, by which it is connected with Ottawa, had a population, in 1891, a little exceeding 19,000. We have seen that from 1840 to 1844 the city was the seat of government for Canada. A temporary decline was followed by renewed prosperity due to excellent railway and water communications, the possession of a good harbour screened by islands from the storms of the Lake, ship-building, and the manufacture of locomotive and other engines, machinery, leather and boots and shoes, agricultural implements and other matters. Standing on the site of Frontenac's fort, which was first placed in charge of the famous Cavalier de la Salle, Kingston dates from the days when the Iroquois were the masters of the land. The stone-batteries and martello-towers give a warlike air to the place as viewed from the water. The educational institutions include the Royal Military College already named, the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons founded in 1854, and the Women's Medical College (1883) therewith connected. There are sees of Anglican and Roman Catholic bishops. *Brantford* (population 12,750) lies on the Grand River, about 24 miles s.w. of Hamilton by rail. The place derives its name from the famous Mohawk chief, whose native name Thayendinaga, was changed on Christian baptism to Joseph Brant. This "brave warrior and sagacious leader, loyal to his friends, and merciful to his captives" was an ally of the British in the Indian and Revolutionary wars. The oldest Episcopal

church in Upper Canada is at the former Mohawk settlement near Brantford, and was erected by means of funds which the chief raised in England, before he translated the Gospel of St. Mark and the English Prayer-book into the language of his people. The quaint little building sheltering Brant's remains (he died in 1807) is still used for public worship in the Mohawk dialect, and possesses a fine communion-service of beaten silver, presented by Queen Anne to the Indian chapel on the Mohawk River. A colossal bronze statue, unveiled in 1886 at the town we are dealing with, commemorates the services and fine character of this excellent specimen of the race whose modern representatives are settled on two reservations to the north of Lakes Erie and Ontario. There are manufactures at Brantford of engines and boilers, machinery and agricultural implements, cotton and stoneware, with the usual good schools and, in the neighbourhood, an Indian Institute and the Ontario Institution for the Blind, under government administration. The *Lorne Bridge*, a fine iron structure, was opened by the Marquis when he was Governor-General.

The town of *Guelph* (population 10,540) is situated on the river Speed, nearly 50 miles west of Toronto, owing its foundation to the Scottish novelist John Galt, whom we have met before in these pages. He became superintendent to the Canada Company early in the nineteenth century, and on St. George's Day (April 23rd), 1827, he selected the site, and had the first tree, a large maple, felled as a beginning, the name being given in compliment to the reigning British dynasty. The town, finely placed on hills, overlooks a choice agricultural district having alluvial valleys, pastoral streams, and abundant water-power coming down from the heights. The Provincial College of Agriculture and Experimental Farm near Guelph have been already noticed. The fair little town of *Galt*, 15 miles south of Guelph, was named after the energetic Scottish author and pioneer by the founder of the place, Mr. William Dickson, a native of Dumfries, and a schoolmate of Galt's in early days at Edinburgh. The place is a prosperous centre of industry, with flour-mills, machine-works, factories, and foundries, whose engines are driven by water-power or steam, doing work in wood and iron, wool and leather. Galt, like so many other Canadian towns, wood-built in their earlier days, has suffered at times severely from fire. In 1851 and 1856 large portions of the place

were thus destroyed, but wood was replaced by limestone and granite, and the town has now a fine Presbyterian Church whose tall, elegant spire throws its shadow over the Grand River. *St. Thomas* (population 10,370) lies about 12 miles due south of London, on the peninsula between Lakes Erie and Huron, and commands a noble prospect westwards over a district dotted with country villas and neat farmsteads, amid wild woodland, plantations of ornamental trees, meadows and corn-fields. The Canada Southern Railway crosses a deep ravine and its river by a long wooden viaduct. The industry of the place lies mainly in the workshops for constructing the railway-cars, adjoining which is the station, one of the finest in the Dominion. The town is a great railway-centre for communication to the north and east and west, while 8 miles south by rail lies Port Stanley, the chief harbour on the northern shore of Lake Erie. St. Thomas, swiftly growing in material prosperity, has an excellent Collegiate Institute, and the Methodist Episcopal Church, in Alma College, a fine pile of Gothic buildings in the centre of the city, amid 6 acres of ground, affords to young ladies an artistic, musical, and literary training. *Windsor* (population 10,322) on the Detroit River, a short distance before it enters Lake St. Clair, has passed through the phases of virgin prairie, river-side farm, trading post of the North-West Company, and ambitious village, into its existing condition as a prosperous town with a great trade in corn and other produce.

Sufficient matter has now been afforded to convey a general conception of the great and flourishing Province of Ontario, one of the finest in the British Empire. Her main resource is in the admirable climate and soil and the skilful and energetic tillage which produce, in addition to the usual British crops, maize and grapes and peaches and other articles needing a genial air and abundant sunshine to reach maturity. The best-settled part of the Province more closely resembles England than any other colony. About 6000 miles of railway have greatly served to develop the manufacturing, mining, and agricultural industries, and in the summer-season there is excellent transport by steamers on the Lakes and canals. The revenue exceeds £700,000 sterling, chiefly derived from subsidies paid by the Dominion treasury, land and lumber sales, licenses and stamps. The expenditure is about equal to the income, and financial matters are thoroughly sound. The imports

have an annual value of about 9 millions sterling, including 5 millions from the United States and 3 millions from Great Britain, while the exports, worth about 7 millions yearly, comprise 5 millions to the States and 1 million to Great Britain. Of the whole amount of exports, nearly 4 millions sterling in value is made up of agricultural products, animals and their produce in meat and hides, butter and cheese. The provincial rule is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor and six cabinet ministers. The Legislative Assembly consists of 90 members elected for four years by manhood suffrage without property qualification.

The present condition of Ontario is an excellent proof of what a hundred years of human effort can effect. Before an acre could be tilled, the forest had to be cleared from the surface of the soil. The wilderness has, in central and eastern Ontario especially, where nearly all was rough and primeval not half a century ago, been turned into a highly civilized region, with railways in every part; bright-looking farms with dwellings of brick or stone; barns built against the hillside to hold in winter the cattle and horses on the basement, and so arranged that the one or two upper stories can be entered by wagons on the level, or up an inclined plane, bringing fodder for winter-use; vast orchards growing apples, in dozens of varieties, with pears and peaches, cherries and plums; waving fields of Indian corn 10 to 16 feet in height; vineyards and root-crops of every kind; the best cheese-dairies and factories in the world; the finest of stock in cattle, sheep, and pigs. In a recent year, out of 11½ million acres of cleared land, above 7½ million acres were under crop, and the value of the land, with the live stock, implements, and buildings thereon, was fairly estimated at much above 200 millions sterling. Above 2½ millions of acres were under pasture, and nearly 200,000 acres were laid out in orchards and gardens. The 737 cheese-factories used, in the same year, 665 million pounds weight of milk in producing over 64 million pounds of cheese. The live stock included nearly 600,000 horses, nearly 2 million horned cattle, about 1,400,000 sheep, 820,000 pigs, and above 6 million head of poultry. After this, it is superfluous to recount the many tens of millions of bushels of corn in various kinds, the two million tons of hay and clover, the fourscore million bushels, and more, of potatoes, mangold-wurzels, carrots, and turnips, won from the soil once uselessly owned and

roamed over by the much-bepraised and really ignoble "red man" now happily and for ever displaced by British colonization, rich in all the resources of science, and sustained by boundless stubbornness of energy and will.

The province of MANITOBA, formerly known as "Red River Settlement", is bounded on the north-west and north by the districts of Saskatchewan and Keewatin; on the east by Ontario and part of Keewatin; on the west by Assiniboia; and on the south, on the line of 49 degrees north latitude, by the United States (Minnesota and North Dakota). The territory has an area of 64,000 square miles, and the population, in 1891, was about 153,000, showing a density of 2.4 per square mile, and an increase of 145 per cent since 1881. In religion, there were 20,600 Roman Catholics; 30,800 Anglicans; 39,000 Presbyterians; 28,500 Methodists, and 16,000 Baptists. In 1886, of nearly 109,000 people, about 26,000 were of English origin, nearly 26,000 Scottish, over 21,000 Irish, about 5600 Indians, 8000 half-breeds, mostly of French extraction, nearly 7000 French, 11,000 Germans, and about 2500 were Icelanders. The increase since that date is mainly due to British emigration, as the above religious statistics indicate. We have now arrived, in our account of the Dominion, at what may be fairly styled New Canada, a region never settled by the old French possessors and claimants of North America, and long supposed to be the abode of eternal frost and snow, or at the most a suitable domain only for furred and feathered creatures. Modern exploration and effort have proved the existence of immense areas of plain and prairie, wonderfully fertile from the animal deposits and decayed vegetable matter of past ages, and capable of sustaining, under tillage and stock-farming, hundreds of millions of human beings, when the whole north-west region is taken into account.

The history of Manitoba is a subject which causes us to revert to that of the Hudson Bay Company, an account of whose territory and proceedings down to the close of the eighteenth century has been given in a former section of this work. It was there noted that the Company was then finding a formidable rival in the North-West Fur Company established in 1783 at Montreal. It was that rivalry which led to the first settlement in the country now called Manitoba. This "Red River territory" forms a part of

the vast region formerly known as "Rupert's Land", named from the dashing Cavalier prince, a nephew of Charles the First, and one of the chief founders of the Hudson Bay Company. That region included the present Manitoba and Keewatin, and the North-western districts Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca. The North-West Company had its head-quarters at Fort William, on Lake Superior, where *M'Kay's Mountain* rears its massive form. At that point business was in charge of a band of keen-witted clerks, mostly young Scots of good family, thrifty and faithful, and with perseverance and energy heightened by a share in the profits of the fur-trade. The higher officials of the Company were like feudal chiefs on the scene of its operations, travelling with a retinue of boatmen and servants obedient as clansmen, and holding council and banquet in the state-chamber at the Fort, where great occasions saw above a thousand factors, *voyageurs*, trappers, clerks, and other dependents of the Company gathered for business relieved by festivity made more attractive in the remembrance of past and the prospect of coming hardship and toil. Early in the nineteenth century, the feud between the two Companies, each coveting a continent as its hunting-ground for furry game, rose to its height. At this time an energetic, benevolent, and enterprising Scottish noble, Thomas Douglas, Earl of Selkirk, one of the great house so renowned in his country's story, was Governor of the Hudson Bay Company, holding a large portion of the stock. The earl was eager on behalf of his Company, and he sought to obtain control of the Red River, and to secure a strong base for future proceedings against the rival body, by erecting a fort at its junction with the Assiniboine. He felt pity for the suffering which at that time prevailed among some of the people in the north of Scotland, and his ambition aimed at creating a great Highland province in North America. This object was not attained, but the name of the earl is justly commemorated in that of the metropolitan "Selkirk county" of Manitoba; in the noble "Selkirk Mountains", with their enormous glaciers, of British Columbia; and in "Point Douglas", a locality in the town of Winnipeg, the name of which retains that of the "Fort Douglas" that once occupied its site. In pursuance of his enterprise, Lord Selkirk received from the Company the grant of 16,000 square miles, or over 10 million acres of land, in the vicinity of the Red

River. By the offer of free farms and special privileges as settlers, a considerable number of hardy Highlanders were induced to undertake the then formidable journey to the distant west. It was in 1811 that the first body of these colonists set sail from the fishing-village of Helmsdale, in the county of Sutherland. The place is well known to tourists in the north of Scotland as a station on the Highland Railway, a few miles beyond the Duke of Sutherland's splendid seaside residence, Dunrobin Castle. The Highlanders passed round the northern coast of Scotland in small vessels manned by Orkney sailors, and, after touching at Sligo on the west coast of Ireland, they made their way across the Atlantic and among the floating ice of Davis and Hudson Straits, and entered Hudson Bay in the autumn of the year. They landed and wintered at Fort York, the Company's trading-port; and in the spring of 1812 they journeyed southwards along the valley of the Nelson River to the south of Lake Winnipeg. There they were met by foes in the shape of an armed band prepared by the rival Company of fur-traders, the Nor'-Westers, plumed and painted like the wild Indians of the woods. Their numbers were too great for the emigrants to resist, and the Highlanders were forced to take refuge at a Hudson Bay Company's post within the United States border, leaving behind, in the hands of their cruel and rapacious opponents, the guns which their forefathers had held at Culloden, and the wedding-rings of their wives. In the spring of 1813 they returned, and began to form settlements at the spots now called Selkirk and Kildonan, the latter being named from a stream and valley in their former Highland home, lying north-west from Helmsdale. Log-houses were built, and some wheat was sown, and for that year the emigrants were left undisturbed.

In 1814, the North-West Company, having decreed the destruction of the little colony, made an attack which, after some bloodshed, ended in the reducing of the settlers' homes to ashes, and their renewed exile in another part of the wilderness. A new band of Highlanders arrived from Scotland, and reinforced by these fellow-countrymen and by a hundred old Canadian settlers, the emigrants returned to the same Red River district, only to encounter difficulties and hardships in which they lived on fish, roots, berries, nettles, and other natural products of the region.

Some of the body then gave up the enterprise and made their way to Canadian soil. The main body of settlers, in June, 1816, were attacked by 300 mounted Nor'-Westers, again in Indian array, and thoroughly armed. A volley from these foes slew the greater part of twenty-eight colonists who went forward to a parley, and the little town was then sacked and burned, the dwellers being again driven to take refuge at one of the Hudson Bay Company's forts. At this time, Lord Selkirk, on his way to Rupert's Land, heard of the outrage when he had reached New York. With the just wrath of a Douglas, he took instant measures for redress. Gathering about 100 Swiss, German, and French soldiers who had been disbanded on the close of the war with the States, and having a few Glengarry men who had come out with him as settlers, he marched, taking two small field-guns with his force, along the northern shores of Lakes Huron and Superior to Fort William, one of the North-West Company's posts, and, seizing the fort, he sent a number of prisoners to trial at York (Toronto) on charges of "larceny, riot, and murder" made by the sufferers. The men were acquitted for lack of complete evidence, but Selkirk retained possession of the fort in pursuance of his plans. A fresh attempt at tillage on the Red River prairies failed for that year, and the Highlanders were again driven by approaching winter to take shelter at Pembina, a Hudson Bay Company's post in the United States.

After very severe suffering, they returned, in the spring of 1817, to their former dwellings, and the crops were in a promising condition when July brought a cloud of grasshoppers which devoured all vegetation. The stoutest-hearted men were broken down by this calamity, and tears were shed for their wives and children's sake as they started for another winter's exile at Pembina. The spring of 1818 saw the settlers back at their homes, but their hopes were again frustrated by the plague of grasshoppers that filled the air, smothered the fires kindled for their destruction, polluted the water, and finally drove the hapless people back for another hard winter at Pembina. Nothing but the resolute philanthropy of Lord Selkirk could have coped with such a succession of disasters in the attempt to found a colony in the wilds. Again and again his resources had provided seed-grain and stock for his countrymen, and in the spring of 1819, resolved to succeed, he had 250

bushels of seed-wheat brought 1200 miles, at the cost of £1000, from a town on the Mississippi, and this time, at last, a good harvest was reaped, and the Red River settlement was finally established in the year of Queen Victoria's birth. For some years the colony grew in numbers and resources, reinforced by emigrants from Scotland, Switzerland and Germany. The winter of 1825–26 caused many deaths, both of persons and cattle, from extreme severity of cold, and the succeeding spring, on the thawing of the snow, brought a river-flood that swept away houses and barns, fences and tillage, into the waters of Lake Winnipeg. After some luckless attempts at the manufacture of cloth from buffalo-hair, promoted by the Hudson Bay Company; and the failure of stock-farming and flax-culture and tallow-trading in schemes which cost Lord Selkirk £100,000, the colony, increased by many half-breed descendants of the early French and English fur-traders and trappers, took a firm hold. The rivalry of the two companies was brought to an end in 1821 by an amalgamation of their interests, followed by a grant, from the Imperial Parliament, of the monopoly of trade from Labrador across to the Pacific. In 1836, the land granted to Lord Selkirk, except that assigned by him to settlers, was purchased for the sum of £84,000, and a form of government was organized in a "Council of Assiniboia", consisting of the Company's chief officer and persons selected from the most influential settlers. This body held jurisdiction for fifty miles around Fort Garry, the trading-post which has become the city of Winnipeg. The rest of the vast territory was under the direct control of the Company, who exercised a rule fairly wise and beneficial, promoting the welfare of the Indians and others through the general exclusion of intoxicating liquors. Before we part with Lord Selkirk's original settlers, it is a pleasing duty to record that, with true Highland loyalty to the church of their fathers, the great majority, unvisited by any Presbyterian minister for nearly forty years, declined to become Anglicans on the arrival of Church of England missionaries. In 1851, the Rev. John Black, despatched by the Canada Presbyterian Church, arrived amongst the Highlanders after a journey of eight weeks from Toronto. Lacking only one gift, the power of addressing them in their native Gaelic, he was warmly welcomed, and a church in the wilderness was quickly organized, with a manse and a school-house, and a kirk of

stone at Kildonan, where the steeple long remained the chief sign of Christian civilization on the expanse of the prairie.

Returning now to the later days of the Company's power in the North-West, we observe that their policy was generally adverse to colonization. At their various lonely "factories" or settlements, Fort York and Moose Factory on Hudson Bay, Fort Chippewyan on the Slave River, Forts Providence and Resolution on Slave Lake, and at other posts in the Saskatchewan valley, and in the Lake Winnipeg district, the Company's agents were devoted to the retention of the fur-trade and the sale of goods of every kind needed in that region, and the increase of population by settlement was regarded as likely to interfere with the monopoly. The Red River settlement, in 1858, had grown to a population of about 8000, and ten years more elapsed before it reached 12,000. In 1838, the Company had acquired from Parliament, for twenty-one years, the retention of the sole right of trading; in 1859 the fur-trade in British North America was thrown open to the world, and in 1869, two years after the formation of the Dominion, the Company formally ceded its territorial claims for the sum of £300,000, retaining all its "forts", with 50,000 acres of land around them, and one-twentieth of the land lying within the "fertile belt" from the Red River to the Rocky Mountains. On this basis the Hudson Bay Company still exists, collecting and dealing in furs, and deriving a large income from the sale of lands. On the annexation of the North-West Territory to the Dominion, the natives were placed on Prairie Reserves, along with the concession of a great area to the half-breeds.

In the following year, 1870, as we have seen, Manitoba was created a Province of the Dominion, and this measure was attended by trouble on the Red River. The passing of the Act by the Dominion Parliament in April, 1869, aroused the apprehensions of many of the settlers lest the change of government should interfere with their title to their lands. Among the 12,000 people of the settlements, there were rivalries of race and creed. They included about 2000 whites, English-speaking Protestants; 5000 English half-breeds of the same faith, and about the same number of French half-breed Catholics. There were American residents who longed for annexation with the States; Fenians who wished to set up a republic; a "Quebec" party aiming at the predominance

of French and Catholic interests, and an "Ontario" party eager for Protestant and British ascendency. Amidst these elements of dissatisfaction and disorder, action was taken, on behalf of the French half-breeds, by Louis Riel, a native of Manitoba, who raised an armed force, and meeting the new Governor of the North-West Territory, Mr. Macdougall, near the frontier, on October 20th, 1869, forced him to retire to Pembina, on United States territory. The insurgents then seized and held Fort Garry, with the Hudson Bay Company's valuable stores, several cannon, a number of small-arms and a large supply of ammunition. Colonel Dennis, a Canadian militia officer, engaged on land-surveys in the district, raised a small body of the loyal inhabitants, but they were taken prisoners and kept for some months in Fort Garry. Riel then pillaged the Company's money-safe and stores, and seized property of the Canadian government, and, encouraged by success and impunity, he established, in February, 1870, a provisional government with himself as president, and drew up a "bill of rights", demanding local self-government, representation in the Dominion legislature, and an amnesty for the leaders of the revolt. At the head of about 600 armed men, he carried matters with a high hand, confiscating public and private property, and arresting and banishing opponents of his cause. A party of loyalists, who had gathered near Fort Garry, were seized to the number of forty-eight, and their leader, Major Boulton, of the Canadian militia, was put in irons, tried by a rebel tribunal, and sentenced to be shot. His life was spared on the earnest intercession of some of the chief British settlers. The chief crime of the rebels was the shooting, in March, after a mock-trial by their "court-martial", of a brave and loyal subject, Thomas Scott, who had shown zeal in asserting the authority of the Queen. The utmost indignation was excited throughout Canada, and the Ontario government offered a reward of 5000 dollars for the arrest of Riel. In May, the new province of Manitoba was formally constituted by an Act, with representation in the Senate and the House of Commons, an annual subsidy of 30,000 dollars, and a local legislature. The "provisional government" accepted this measure, and on June 23rd, the Queen's proclamation for the admission of the new province into the Dominion was issued. At the same time, a force of 1200 picked men, including 100 of the 60th Regiment of the Line, and volun-

teer Canadian militia, was marching by way of Fort William to Fort Garry, under the command of Colonel (afterwards Sir Garnet and Viscount) Wolseley. For 400 miles the little army, with great labour in the transport of military stores and provisions, and of large and heavy boats over long, steep, and rugged "portages" amidst a labyrinth of lakes and streams, made their way to their destination, and there found that, in default of an amnesty, Riel and his associates had fled. Thus ended the "Red River rebellion", with the banishment of Lepine, one of the leaders, and the outlawry of Riel. In 1874 he was elected to the Dominion House of Commons by a Manitoban constituency, but he was not permitted to take his seat. We shall meet him again in a later stage of this narrative.

The construction of railways connecting the province with British Columbia on the west, and with the St. Lawrence and the maritime provinces on the east, was a chief agency in the rapid development of Manitoba. This mode of communication has been now much extended towards the north and west and to the frontier of the United States. The prairies, devoid of obstruction to railway engineers, are easily supplied with rails, while the nature of the deep soil renders difficult the maintenance of macadamized roads for the transport of heavy goods. The country presents some beautiful natural features. *Lake of the Woods*, with its western shore in Manitoba, has been already mentioned. At *Rat Portage*, on the northern shore, the river Winnipeg issues from the lake in two streams, on its way to Lake Winnipeg, and passes down many cataracts and rapids, with intervals marked by charming green islets. The great sea of prairie that rolls away towards the Rockies has a beauty of its own at all seasons of the year—in the vast expanse of winter-snows, in the bleached dead grasses of earliest spring, in the pale-blue or delicate white of the first anemones, in the tender green of the new growth of grass, with a great variety of flowering plants bending in the breeze as far as eye can reach; in the marvellous wealth of roses in June, and in the lovely hues of autumn changing the tints of grasses and sedge, vetches and reeds, and of the innumerable flowers as they die away. Nor must it be supposed that the prairie is everywhere devoid of trees to break the monotonous expanse. The rivers and the smaller streams, or "creeks", are usually marked by lines of

growing timber—elm and oak, poplar and maple—and the country round about Selkirk, where the Canada Pacific Railway first strikes the Red River, has a beautiful park-like aspect. The chief lakes, Winnipeg, Manitoba, and Winnipegosis, have been referred to in our general account of the Dominion. Among the rivers which traverse the province, besides the lower course of the Red River, is the Assiniboine, with its tributaries the Souris and the Pembina.

The mean summer-temperature is about 66 degrees; the thermometer, in winter, sometimes falls to 30 below zero, but the brightness and dryness of the atmosphere cause the cold to be much more tolerable than in a moist climate. The chief drawbacks are occasional summer-frosts, injurious to cereals, and terrible blizzards, an experience not to be forgotten during life by the traveller who has survived long exposure in a driving storm of snow which flies level through the air, with the keenness of a steel edge, and intensity of cold which freezes hands and feet, while the furious wind snaps off branches and lays low the trees. The main industry is agriculture, often conducted on a very large scale, with the most modern machinery for tillage, and for reaping and threshing the produce. The deep, black, clayey mould or loam, with a deep clay subsoil, admirably suited for wheat, is one of the very richest in the world, in many places needing no manure for years, and in some spots of inexhaustible natural fertility. Of late years, stock-farming has been introduced with success, and dairy-produce has so well succeeded that Manitoba, importing cheese in 1886, now exports it to a considerable value. Root-crops, and the small fruits of the British Isles, give good returns. In the least settled parts of the country there are moose, and bears, and deer, with plenty of feathered game, and the usual abundance of fish in the rivers and lakes.

The rapidity of rise in the chief town and seat of government, *Winnipeg*, is one of the marvels of the Dominion. In 1870, as Fort Garry, the place was a wretched-looking village whose whole belongings, with itself, might have been carried away in a few Red River boats. Standing at the confluence of that river with the Assiniboine, over 1400 miles from Montreal, and incorporated as a "city" in 1873, it is now a fine substantial town of stone and brick, with tram-cars traversing spacious streets, and lit by the electric light. The settler will there find all the resources of

Christianity and culture in churches, colleges, and schools, and the elements of material wealth in busy factories, great flour-mills and towering "grain-elevators". In 1871 the population was 241; in 1881, nearly 8000; in 1891, it had reached 25,600. St. Boniface is a quaint French suburb on the opposite side of the river, connected with Winnipeg by a steam-ferry. The streets of the city present an incongruous mixture of semi-savage and civilized life in half-breeds and Indians contrasted with visitors from almost every part of the world and with townspeople who, in numbers unequalled for the size of the place, are graduates of the University of Manitoba. Fine carriages drawn by noble steeds run side by side with rude ox-carts, and wooden houses are seen along with fine public buildings. *Brandon*, a town founded in 1881, lies on the Canadian Pacific Railway, below the junction of the Assiniboine and Little Saskatchewan rivers, in a rich wheat-growing district, and has now a population of about 6000, with grain-elevators, a flour-mill, and well-built houses. *Portage-la-Prairie*, west of Winnipeg, is a town about the size of Brandon, and derives its name from being formerly, as the nearest point on the Assiniboine River to Lake Manitoba, the place whence goods were carried or "portaged" from one to the other. *Gladstone*, *Minnedosa*, and *Emerson* are other small Manitoban towns. In a recent year, the exports in agricultural produce, stock, and cheese, chiefly to the States and the British Isles, had a value of over £350,000, while the imports from the same countries in 1896 were worth over £540,000. A large intercolonial trade is also carried on. The Lieutenant-Governor is assisted by an Executive Council, and the one Legislative assembly of 38 members is chosen by the people.

KEEWATIN, a territory stretching northwards from Manitoba and Ontario along the western shore of James Bay and Hudson Bay, was created as a separate district in 1876 out of the North-West Territories, and placed in charge of the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba; in October, 1883, a portion of that province was added, and Keewatin, more a geographical area than a political entity, is now estimated at 282,000 square miles, of which 15,000 square miles are comprised in the surface of rivers and lakes. The population is about 5000, Indians, whites, and, in the extreme north, Eskimos, the only settlements being Norway House, Port

Nelson, Fort Churchill, and one or two other posts of the Hudson Bay Company. The country, well-timbered in some places, is little adapted for cultivation, and is mainly given up to the hunters and trappers of the abundant large and small game and fur-bearing animals. The great *Nelson River*, draining a larger area than the St. Lawrence, issues from the northern end of Lake Winnipeg, and traverses Keewatin in a north-easterly course of about 400 miles, during which it passes through various lakes, to its outlet in Hudson Bay. In the upper course, there are rapids and cascades; in the lower part, the river is navigable for about 130 miles, of which 70 or 80 are open to large steamers. Forests of spruce are found on the shore of some of the lakes, and here and there the wigwams and canoes of Indians may be seen. The *Wa-sitch-e-wan* or *White Falls* form a beautiful scene in a steep double cascade over rocky ground between woodland of firs, where a stream comes down from the heights on the right bank of the river. The *Churchill*, flowing in the same direction as the Nelson, has a course of about 1000 miles, of which the lower part is in Keewatin. Bearing in its upper waters the names of the *Beaver* and then the *Missinnippi*, it passes through many lakes, and has many rapids which are avoided by the usual "portage" of boats and their burdens during the considerable summer-traffic. This limpid river, larger than the Rhine, flows between steep alluvial banks in its lower course, only navigable for 8 miles from the sea, owing to its swift current and shallow broken bed in that part. Inside the mouth is a fine harbour, well sheltered by a rocky ridge, and capable of floating the largest vessels at low tide. A picturesque sight is here afforded by the massive ruins of Fort Prince of Wales, which mounted, above a century ago, forty heavy guns of that age, defending the stores of the Hudson Bay Company. The event of the year in this sparsely-peopled region of island-dotted lakes, of rivers full of rapids and "chutes", and of forests of spruce-fir, is the arrival of the annual ship from England at *York Factory* or *Fort York*, near the mouth of the Nelson River. The place is of rectangular shape, surrounded by high palisades, with a large storehouse or "factory" in the centre, and streets of wooden buildings on three sides of the enclosure. A mission-church stands outside on the north. The vessel whose white sails bring thoughts of their distant kinsfolk to the British exiles at the Factory is

THE ARRIVAL OF THE ANNUAL SHIP AT FORT YORK, HUDSON BAY.

One of the most striking natural features of British North America is Hudson's Bay—an immense navigable inland sea, bounding upon the north the settled provinces of the Dominion of Canada. Various rivers empty themselves into this basin or bay, such as the Churchill and the Nelson, and at suitable points along the coast the Hudson Bay Company have established trading-posts; the most important of these being York Factory or Fort on the Hayes river, near the mouth of the Nelson river. All the merchandise collected by the Company's traders and trappers is stored at these posts, and as the Bay is only navigable, owing to the ice, for a short period in the summer, a ship is sent out annually from England with supplies in exchange for the native products. The great event of the year, therefore, is the arrival at the Fort of the Annual Ship, which brings these lonely traders into touch with the outside world.

W. RAINEY, R.I.

68

THE ARRIVAL OF THE ANNUAL SHIP AT FORT YORK, HUDSON BAY.

received with a salute from the battery ashore, answered before she drops her anchor in the river opposite the Fort. Quickly unladen of her welcome stores, she makes an immediate start for home, leaving the "factors" and trappers to face the lengthy coming winter, when the charms of the Indian summer have passed away.

CHAPTER VIII.

New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton Island, Prince Edward Island.

Boundaries, area, and population of New Brunswick—Its early mis-government—Disastrous conflagrations—Reform contests—Financial depression and riots—Responsible government established—Physical features and scenery of the province—Grand Falls of St. John—Fisheries—Climate—Agriculture—Trade—St. John city—Fredericton—The Chignecto Ship-railway. Boundaries, area, and population of Nova Scotia—Struggles for constitutional government—Joseph Howe—Distinguished natives—Physical geography—Apple culture—Yarmouth city—The Tusket lakes—Cape Sable—Lunenburg—Cape Canso—Antigonish, New Glasgow, Pictou, and Windsor towns—Halifax—Its fortifications—Interior of the province—Climate—Agriculture and timber trade—Fisheries—Mining-trade and shipping—Revenue—Administration. Cape Breton Island—Louisbourg—Bras d'Or Lake—Sydney towns. Sable Island, the "ocean graveyard"—Story of its plagues. Boundaries, area, and population of Prince Edward Island—Lord Selkirk's colony—Tyranny of Governor Smith—Difficulties with the land question—Later progress of the province—Its geographical features—Agriculture and fisheries—Game birds—Manufactures—Revenue—Administration—Charlottetown—Summerside—Georgetown.

New Brunswick is bounded on the north by Chaleur Bay, a great inlet of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and by the province of Quebec; on the west, by Quebec and the State of Maine; on the south, by the Bay of Fundy and Nova Scotia; and on the east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and by Northumberland Strait, the latter dividing it from Prince Edward Island. With an area of nearly 28,000 square miles, it is larger than Belgium and Holland united, and only a little smaller than Scotland. The population, which was the same in 1891 as ten years previously, was by the census 321,260, showing a density of 11.4 per square mile. In religious profession, the Roman Catholics numbered 116,000; the Anglicans, 43,000; the Presbyterians, 40,640; the Methodists, 35,500; and the Baptists, 79,600, figures from which easy conclusions may be drawn as to nationalities. About 95,000 are of English origin;

nearly 50,000 are Scottish in blood; the Roman Catholics are, in about half their number, Irish; there are nearly 60,000 people of French extraction; about 7000 Germans and a few hundreds of Indians are found in the province. As in 1881 the census showed over 100,000 people of Irish origin, we may assume that a large proportion of these were Protestants, since the French must have been almost wholly Roman Catholics.

The history down to the opening years of the nineteenth century having been already given, we may note that the trade of the colony was stimulated during the war with the United States in 1812–1815, and that the growing demand for shipping, and the heavy duty on Baltic pine, were specially profitable to New Brunswick. The loyalty of the people was shown in the mustering of the King's Regiment for service in Upper Canada with the regular army, the men marching on snow-shoes through the wintry woods, and displaying much courage in the field of war. In the earlier decades of the century, government was in the hands of military men who had little sympathy with desires for the development of popular rule, and there were the usual conflicts on the subject of revenue-control between two houses of legislature. Sir Howard Douglas, a Peninsular hero, and a notable author on naval gunnery, was Governor from 1823 to 1829, and rendered great service to the colonists in promoting internal development by the construction of roads and the encouragement of tillage among a people hitherto almost exclusively devoted to lumbering and ship-building. He was also founder of the University of Fredericton, of which he became the first chancellor. The year 1825 was marked by terrible disaster in the shape of fire. After a long drought which had rendered all timber, when the autumn came, highly inflammable, and reduced rivers to mere trickling brooks, woods and farms were laid waste by accidental conflagration, and Government House at Fredericton was burned. This, however, was a mere prelude to calamity on a far vaster scale. On October 7th, the valley of the river Miramichi was swept for 60 miles by flame which spread northwards to the Bay of Chaleur. For two preceding days, the air had been intensely close and a dead calm prevailed. The towns of Newcastle and Douglas were almost destroyed, and three million acres of forest were burnt up; 160 human beings perished, many hundreds were maimed for life, and thousands only escaped by fling-

ing themselves into lakes and rivers. Houses, barns, live stock, crops, and several ships lying on the stocks, were the material losses added to the destruction of growing trees in the awful disaster which made a blackened desolation of 5000 square miles of territory. Prompt and abundant help was forthcoming from Great Britain and the United States, and the province rose by degrees from this overwhelming trouble. We pass over the border-troubles which for some years preceded the adjustment, already mentioned, of the boundary-line between New Brunswick and the State of Maine.

The struggle for responsible government in New Brunswick did not assume so serious a form as in Upper and Lower Canada. The prerogatives of the crown, as against the popular aspirations for self-government, were strongly maintained by Major-General Sir Alexander Campbell, who became Lieutenant-Governor in 1831. In the following year, the Legislative Council was separated from the Executive Council, but the latter was still an exclusive oligarchical body, indifferent and irresponsible to public opinion. The Assembly had no control, through financial matters, over an administration possessed of funds, in "casual and territorial revenue", sufficient for civil expenses. In 1837, however, the Colonial Office in England caused the Governor and Executive Council to surrender this revenue in return for a liberal permanent civil-list granted by the Assembly, and Sir John Harvey, who became Governor in that year, exercised a conciliatory and constitutional rule. The chief leader of the party of reform had been Mr. Lemuel Allan Wilmot, a descendant of "United Empire Loyalist" ancestors. It was he who, on a mission to England, gained from the Home Government the concession that the control of the revenues should be vested, as above, in the representatives of the people. The year 1842 was one of varied troubles. Financial depression was caused by temporary stagnation in the timber trade and by the reckless voting of moneys in the popular Assembly. A Conservative reaction showed itself at the general election and serious rioting had to be suppressed by military force. There were destructive fires in the city of St. John, and on July 12th a desperate contest, in which several persons were killed and many wounded, occurred between the Roman Catholic and Orange factions.

In 1848, through the influence of Earl Grey, the Colonial

Secretary, who had laid down the principle that the Executive Councillors in our North American provinces should hold office only while they retained the confidence of the Legislative Assembly, and with the united vote of both parties in New Brunswick, responsible government was fully and finally established. The first representative of the Queen under the new system was Sir Edmund Walker Head, who held office as Lieutenant-Governor for six years, until he succeeded Lord Elgin, as we have seen, in 1854 as Governor-General of Canada. The period of his rule was one of general prosperity through the development of the country's internal resources and the extension of her foreign trade. The growth of the Anglican religious body in the province was recognized in 1845 by the separation of New Brunswick from the diocese of Nova Scotia, which had originally included all the British possessions in North America, and had afterwards been divided by the establishment of episcopal sees at Quebec, at Toronto, and in Newfoundland. The bishopric of Fredericton was founded in the above year, and in 1853 Christ Church Cathedral was consecrated in that city. In the remaining years that preceded the formation of the Dominion there were few occurrences of interest in New Brunswick. An attempt at trade-protection policy was defeated through the united influence of the Colonial Secretary at home and the local Legislative Council; the Prince of Wales received a loyal welcome in 1860; and in 1864 the scheme for confederation was condemned by popular vote at a general election, an expression of opinion which, as has been already recorded, was not long afterwards reversed, and New Brunswick became one of the first members of the Canadian Dominion.

Much of the scenery of New Brunswick has been already mentioned in our account of the Intercolonial Railway. Along the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the surface is generally level, while along the Bay of Fundy there is a rocky, uneven district rising into a plateau. Dense forests of valuable timber still cover a large area, displaying special beauty of tints, in the decline of the year, on the great variety of trees. On the coast-line, 500 miles in length, there are many fine harbours. The *St. John*, the *Miramichi*, the *Restigouche*, and the *Tobique* are the best-known rivers in this land of streams and lakes. Most of the latter are of small dimensions, but *Grand Lake*, connected with the St. John about 50 miles from its

mouth, is 30 miles in length and from 3 to 7 in width. Among the picturesque scenery the most notable is found at the *Grand Falls of St. John*, which are far up the river, on the north-west border of the province, close to the State of Maine. Vastly inferior in magnitude to Niagara, this noble cataract, from its character and surroundings, produces a great impression on all who behold it in its terrible grandeur and force. Above the falls, the river suddenly narrows from a quarter of a mile to 300 feet and then plunges over, by a perpendicular descent of about 80 feet, into a gloomy gorge of about a mile in length, walled in by dark slate cliffs of twisted strata, interspersed with white veins of quartz, and rising to heights of from 100 to 250 feet. The body of water comes down, at its centre, upon a conical black rock above 40 feet high, and is dashed off thence with a force that sends huge masses of water into the air, descending in snow-white foam. Great waves are thrown far up against the walls of the chasm, and at times the river, in a seeming effort to escape from its imprisonment, is heaped on one side so as to bare for a moment the very bed of the enormous trough. The awful tumult continues throughout the gorge. The special sight is that afforded by the lumbermen's logs coming down over the cataract, when they are sometimes shot out into the air for their full length to a distance of 40 or 50 yards from the base. A fine view is obtained from the suspension-bridge crossing the chasm from crag to crag about 200 yards below the falls. The sportsman, amongst other attractions, has the trout-fishing on the Tobique and other streams, and the spearing of salmon by night on the Restigouche. The Indians of the Millicete and Micmac tribes, chiefly dwelling on the coast, are excellent guides and assistants for adventurous tourists in search of salmon, trout, the striped bass, waterfowl or deer. The wild animals include otters, lynxes, musk-rats and a few beavers. The sea-fisheries, estimated at above a million sterling in value, rank in the Dominion next to those of Nova Scotia. The climate is extremely healthy, with the wide range of from 10 degrees below zero Fahrenheit to 82 above, and a mean temperature, at St. John, just above 40. The great cold, as we have had occasion to observe concerning other parts of the Dominion, is alleviated by the extreme dryness of the air, and the people of New Brunswick are remarkable for their vigorous frames and length of life.

The fertile soil produces all the grains, roots, vegetables, and fruits of the British Isles, and, with about 1¼ millions of acres under cultivation, there are many millions more ready, at a cheap rate, for settlers to occupy. Improved land may also be had on reasonable terms, as many Scottish and other colonists have left the country for Manitoba and the North-West Territories. The chief industry is agriculture, with an increase in the breeding of superior stock; ship-building is still largely carried on, in spite of the competition of iron and steel in recent years. There are some manufactures of leather, woollen and cotton goods, mill machinery, iron castings, railway-stock, and nails, and the mining of iron, manganese, copper, and antimony is successfully pursued. In the year 1896 the exports of New Brunswick were valued at about 7,855,000 dollars or £1,572,000. Of this amount, mining accounted for over 100,000 dollars; fisheries, nearly 800,000; the forests, 5,543,600; animals and their produce, 580,000; agricultural products, 391,000; and manufactures, 433,000. About four-fifths of this trade belonged to New Brunswick. In 1892, St. John had imports and exports of nearly equal value, the latter somewhat the higher, worth nearly £700,000. The revenue, made up chiefly of subsidies from the Dominion government, and from land and timber sales, was 613,000 dollars (over £120,000) in 1890, with an expenditure of 678,000 dollars and a debt of nearly 1,900,000 or nearly £400,000.

Besides the towns already mentioned, we must now deal with St. John and Fredericton. *St. John*, the largest town, the commercial capital, and the railway centre of New Brunswick, stands on the north or left bank of the estuary of the St. John River, rising with its many spires and buildings of gray stone, or red brick, or brown-painted wood, up the side of a steep and rocky peninsula, with a background of heights. In the season, the harbour is busy with large and small craft—fine-lined yachts, broad-browed wood-boats, steam-tugs, coasters and ocean-going ships. With the adjacent *Portland*, connected by a populous street running through a deep ravine, and now forming a part of the larger place, St. John contains about 60,000 people. A battery of heavy guns, on Fort Howe Hill, in Portland, commands the harbour, and affords a fine view of the whole city with its steep streets climbing up three valleys running diverse ways. The chief industries are ship-build-

ing and the timber-trade, besides the manufactures already mentioned. The modern history of this thriving city includes one terrible episode in the conflagration of June 20th, 1877, which destroyed over 1600 houses, or two-fifths of the place, including the best private and public buildings. Many of the ships in the harbour were consumed, and hot ashes, carried by the wind, were rained down upon villages lying miles away. At Fredericton, 84 miles distant, the sky to the south-east glowed until daybreak like a wall of hot copper. Prompt and liberal relief was afforded by the other Canadian provinces, Great Britain, and the United States, and a new St. John arose in even more substantial and elegant form. The chief thoroughfare, King Street, climbing up a steep hill from the harbour, is of very spacious breadth lined by fine shops. The Custom-house, of rich-toned sandstone, is a noble structure, and the public and commercial buildings—Post Office, City Hall, the New Brunswick and the Montreal Banks, the Union Club, and Trinity Church—are very handsome. The chief open space, *King Square*, comprises three acres planted with trees, and with a fountain in the midst. The Roman Catholic Cathedral is a beautiful structure of freestone and marble, in pointed Gothic, with a splendid spire and good stained windows. The city presents a remarkable appearance in having many of its streets blasted and hewn out of the solid rock which towers high and black above the house roofs. The port is amply supplied with steam communication along the coast of the United States, with the other maritime provinces, across the Atlantic, and up the river St. John.

At one point, above the city wharves, the river, after expanding, at some distance above St. John, to a width of four or five miles, passes through a deep ravine less than 200 yards across, spanned by a suspension bridge, and by a fine railway bridge on the cantilever principle. A remarkable phenomenon is here presented, twice in every 24 hours, in the form of a reversible cataract or steep rapid. At low ebb-tide, the river-waters dash downwards through the ravine towards the sea in a boiling surge of waves. At mid-tide there is a placid surface on which vessels passing up or down safely float. The change is caused by the strength of the very high tide which prevails in the Bay of Fundy, gradually checking the river-waters, and then overcoming them so as to rush with tremendous force through the ravine, and fill the upper basin

with the salt water at its flood-level. A picturesque voyage up the St. John takes the traveller past the junction with that river of the *Kennebecasis*, a noble stream with an average breadth of two miles in the lower eighteen miles of its course. It is on the beautiful expanse of its lower waters that the yachting, sculling, and water-parties of this region of New Brunswick take place, and that her most famous oarsmen are trained for their competitions, and it was here that Renforth, the stroke of a Tyneside crew racing against New Brunswickers many years ago, fell dead in the boat as his mighty efforts urged it along.

At 84 miles, as the river runs, up from St. John, lies the seat of government, *Fredericton*. This little city of about 8000 people lies embedded in foliage opposite the junction of the Nashwaak with the larger river. Her chief importance lies in being a political, judicial, educational, and ecclesiastical centre, with a military element, and in the particular social character which belongs to such a place. Fredericton is also the meeting-point of four railways, and has much business as the distributing depôt for a rich agricultural district, and in connection with lumbering, the manufacture of cotton and leather, and fish-canning. The streets are broad and level, generally shaded with noble elms, and the handsome public buildings include the beautiful little Anglican cathedral in pure Gothic style, and fine stone churches of the Presbyterians and Baptists. A line of wooded heights rises at the back of the city, displaying good private residences, and the massive old structure of the New Brunswick University, crowning a succession of terraces. The river is crossed by a long white bridge for foot-passengers and carriages and by a splendid steel erection for railway lines.

Before quitting New Brunswick, we must notice further the advantages of her land-system. The farmers of the province are almost without exception the owners of the lands which they cultivate. If a man rents a farm, he only does so for a short period, and for the purpose of employing his time until he can do better. Every man can become a land-owner if he wishes, and the relations of landlord and tenant, so far as they apply to farmers, are almost unknown. In 1887 the free-grant system of settlement was introduced, and it soon attained great success. There are now about fifty free-grant settlements, occupied by thousands of industrious

men who had no means of purchasing farms, but who will soon be in prosperous circumstances. The aggregate value of the improvements in those settlements which have been carved out of the forest in ten years is not much less than one million dollars. Land is not now given under the Free Grants Act, but the Labour Act virtually makes a free grant, as work done on the roads in payment for the land is done near the applicant's own lot, and is greatly to his own benefit. Next to agriculture, the industry which employs the largest number of men, and yields the largest returns, is the timber-trade. Some figures above given show that the products of the woods, which originally covered the whole surface of the province, form by far the largest item in the exports of this pleasant and prosperous territory of the British colonial empire.

It only remains to state that the government of New Brunswick is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, an executive Council or ministry, a Legislative Council of 18 members, and a Legislative Assembly of 41 members chosen under a liberal franchise.

Nova Scotia, a long narrow peninsula, is bounded on the north by Northumberland Strait, dividing it from Prince Edward Island, and by the Gulf of St. Lawrence; on the north-east by the Strait of Canso; on the south and south-east by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the west by the Bay of Fundy and New Brunswick. With a length of 300 miles, and a maximum breadth of 100, and a coast-line about 1000 miles in length, abounding in good harbours, the Province has an area (with Cape Breton Island) of about 21,000 sq. miles, one-fifth of which is estimated to consist of lakes, rivers, and sea-inlets. Of above 10 million acres of land, only half can be regarded as fit for tillage, the rest being of a rocky, barren character. In 1891, the census showed a population of 450,000, with a density of about 22 per sq. mile, and an increase of $2^1/_5$th per cent since 1881. With our recollections of *Acadie* or French Nova Scotia, we are prepared to find that there were, of the above total, 122,500 Roman Catholics, while the Presbyterians numbered 109,000, the Anglicans 64,400, the Baptists 83,000, and the Methodists 54,000.

Taking up the history of this province in the nineteenth century, we find that the people derived benefit, during the war of 1812–1814, from the greatly augmented naval and military expen-

diture at Halifax, whose harbour was enlivened by the presence of British fleets, the arrival of prizes captured by British cruisers, and the sending forth of expeditions to assail the coast of the United States. A reaction came with the close of the war, and Nova Scotian prosperity had a period of ebb, in the decline of revenue and trade, the reduction of work at Halifax dockyard, and the choice of Bermuda in place of Halifax as the chief British naval station in North American waters. The Governorship of the Earl of Dalhousie, an accomplished gentleman and brave soldier, from 1816 to 1820, when he became Governor-General of Canada, was marked by the formation of a Provincial Agricultural Society at Halifax, under the earl's presidency, and an impetus to scientific farming was given by the exertions of a "canny" Scot, Mr. John Young, who held the post of secretary. As in New Brunswick and the two Canadas, a constitutional struggle took place against an irresponsible Executive Council, dominated by a "Family Compact" party who disregarded the popular interests and claims. The people's champion in this matter was Mr. Joseph Howe, son of a former "United Loyalist". He was a ready and eloquent speaker, a shrewd and vigorous wielder of the journalist's pen, and he dealt tremendous blows, in and outside of the Assembly, against the ruling oligarchy. Some strong resolutions were, in 1837, carried in the Assembly through the influence of Howe, and the King, soon to be succeeded by a Queen, was prayed to grant an elective Legislative Council, and to exclude the Bishop and the Chief Justice from the body. A part of the requests made was granted in the Executive Council being compelled to hold public sittings, and in the granting of control, over the casual and territorial revenue, to the Legislative Assembly, but the Legislative Council remained a nominated body. Strong party feeling was aroused, reformers being denounced as "rebels" and "republicans", supporters of Papineau and Mackenzie in Canada. Early in 1840, Mr. Howe carried resolutions, by 30 votes to 12, in the Legislative Assembly, condemning the policy of the government and expressing want of confidence in the Executive Council. The acting Governor, Sir Colin Campbell, the future hero of Crimean and East Indian warfare, a staunch upholder of prerogative, declined to make any changes to meet the popular views, but his successor, in 1840, Lord Falkland, conceded an enlargement of the Legisla-

tive Council to 20 members, nine of whom were representative of rural districts. Mr. Howe and another prominent reformer, Mr. M'Nab, became members of the Executive Council, and six of the ten members of that body were also members of the Legislative Assembly and thus made directly answerable to their constituents. The principle of responsible government was thus largely recognized. After a period of Conservative reaction concerning the question of higher education, which Howe and his followers wished to make of an undenominational character, and a fierce contest between Lord Falkland and the newspaper press controlled by Howe, the Governor was recalled in 1846, and under the new ruler, Sir John Harvey, in 1848, responsible government was fully and finally established when the Executive Council or ministry resigned office in deference to a direct vote of want of confidence carried in the Legislative Assembly. During succeeding years, the railway-system was developed and the coal-mines of the province were freely worked. In 1864, the school-system was reorganized with great improvements in the way of assessments for education, grants in aid, and the development of elementary instruction. Three years later, Nova Scotia became a province of the new Dominion. Among distinguished natives of Nova Scotia we may note Captain Parker and Major Welsford, killed before Sebastopol at the final assault in September, 1855, and honoured by a monument erected five years later at Halifax, and especially Sir William Fenwick Williams of Kars, renowned for the part which he played in the defence of that Asiatic fortress against a great Russian host in the same Crimean or Russian War. Born at Halifax in 1800, son of the commissary-general and barrack-master, and early entering military life, he served as an engineer in Ceylon, and as a diplomatist in Asiatic Turkey, before he rose to fame at Kars and won a baronetcy, a pension of £1000 voted by the Commons, and a costly sword of honour from the Legislature of his native country, and became, in 1858, Commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America.

The most remarkable feature in the physical geography of Nova Scotia is the number of sea-inlets. On the south-west, *St. Mary Bay* and *Annapolis Basin* run up for many miles, each separated from the Bay of Fundy by a narrow strip of land. Annapolis Basin is entered from the Bay of Fundy by a strait called

Digby Gut, about 2 miles long and only 80 yards in width, running between cliffs from 400 to 650 feet in height. Three miles to the south lies the little town of *Digby*, on a pleasant hillside with its white houses embowered among apple-orchards, and cherry-trees famous for red and black fruit that brings summer-visitors from Halifax and St. John, and from Portland and Boston in the States. The Basin is begirt with hills at the base of which are ranges of white cottages and lines of orchards, gardens, and cultivated fields. The *Annapolis Valley*, which is the western half of the district styled "the garden of Nova Scotia", between the long ranges of hills called North Mountain and South Mountain, is a region of apple-orchards that extend along the roadside with scarcely a break for 50 miles, presenting a sight of marvellous beauty in the pink and white blossoms of spring and the ripe ruddy, brown, and yellow crop of autumn. The French Acadians in early days introduced some of the finest sorts, ribston pippins, golden russets, pomme grise, nonpareils, and other varieties, to which many more have now been added, and with such success that the annual export certainly exceeds 300,000 barrels. The historical town of *Annapolis*, seen in former pages of this work, has a population of about 3000, and commands a noble view of the Basin to which it gives its name. The *Cornwallis Valley*, the eastern half of the district, is watered by four rivers, and has a deep alluvial soil of wonderful fertility in the production of apples and other fruits. Further to the north, the Bay of Fundy has a spacious eastern offset called *Minas Channel*, at the head of which the voyager, passing round the fine promontory *Cape Split*, with its outer cliff, 400 feet in height, detached from the chief mass, passes into the grand *Minas* or *Mines Basin*, which penetrates 60 miles inland and ends in *Cobequid Bay*. Another fine headland on a line with Cape Split is *Cape Blomidon*, composed of sandstone rising for about 500 feet. We come next to the flat district, defended by dikes from the inroads of the Fundy tide, and known from Longfellow's poem as the "Land of Evangeline", the *Grand Pré* or Great Meadow, rich in crops of hay. On the north of Cobequid Bay, in the rugged region of the Cobequid hills, lie the Acadia Mines, rich in iron-ore worked by a motley population of Cornishmen, Nova Scotians, Swedes, Irishmen, and Scots, smelted on the spot at blast-furnaces, and worked up into bars and sheets, wheels and axles, and other forms.

On the low rocky west coast lies the flourishing town of *Yarmouth,* with a population of about 7000. She ranks fourth—next to St. John (New Brunswick), Montreal, and Windsor—among the ship-owning ports of the Dominion, and her citizens have lately shown their enterprising spirit in establishing a line of large Clyde-built steamers to Boston. The place is made beautiful by handsome villas, in many cases the abodes of retired ship-captains; by the verdure of the lawns, trees, and shrubs, and by the bright red, purple, and white blossoms of the flowers, all kept fresh in the heat of summer by the soft Atlantic mists. Fishing, woollen-mills, foundries and a canvas-factory are the chief industries of this charming little city. A short distance inland is the singular region of the *Tusket lakes,* about 80 in number, clustered about the course of the Tusket river. These tiny, rock-bound, inland waters are overshadowed by maple and beech, birch and spruce, and afford excellent fishing for salmon and trout. Passing southwards from Yarmouth along the coast, we round *Cape Sable,* the most southerly point of Nova Scotia, at the south-western extremity of an island of the same name. The designation, bestowed by the French, is derived from the white sands at the foot of the headland. The island, 7 miles long by 3 in extreme width, has about 1700 people, chiefly descendants of New England loyalists who occupied it some time after the deportation to Halifax, in 1758, of the French Acadians. Cape Sable, from its currents, fogs, and rock-ledges, is carefully avoided by prudent mariners, dreading the scene of numerous wrecks thereby caused. The whole southern or south-eastern coast of the peninsula has been indented like a very irregular saw through the action, for many ages, of the Atlantic waves, and it is from the towns and villages on the numerous harbours and river-estuaries in this part of Nova Scotia that the extensive fishing-industry is chiefly carried on. At the mouth of the Mersey river, on a fine natural harbour, half-way between Cape Sable and Halifax, lies the thriving little *Liverpool,* with about 5000 people whose earnings are chiefly due to fishing, lumbering, and ship-building. The river flows out of the largest Nova Scotian lake, the beautiful *Lake Rossignol,* 20 miles in length by 8 in average width. Passing the mouth of the fine estuary of the La Have river, 13 miles up which lies the rising little *Bridgewater,* with its lumbering and saw-mills, we arrive, in a fair and

sheltered haven, at the wharves of *Lunenburg*, a prosperous ship-building and mining town of 5000 people, Germans in blood and language and way of life. Leaving Halifax for the time, we pass a coast where inland lies the noble lake called *Ship Harbour*, 15 miles in length, and *Sherbrooke*, on a bay at the mouth of the St. Mary's river, a fine stream for salmon and trout, like the neighbouring waters of the Gaspereaux and Indian Rivers.

At the south-eastern extremity of the province we reach *Cape Canso*, to the north of which, south of the entrance to Chedabucto Bay, lies the little town of Canso, the landing-place of several Atlantic cables. Passing thence north-west through the *Gut* or *Strait of Canso*, we reach the northern shore of Nova Scotia, on which lie the towns of Antigonish, New Glasgow, and Pictou. *Antigonish*, a charming little place of about 2000 inhabitants, amid trees and shrubs, meadows and tilled fields, lies in a district peopled by Scots from the Highlands, and trades largely in agricultural produce exported to Newfoundland. It is the see of a Roman Catholic bishop, and the new cathedral, St. Ninian's, a fine building of blue limestone dressed with brick, bears on its front the words, "Tighe Dhe", or "House of God" in Gaelic, in which tongue discourses are often delivered. St. François Xavier College is a thriving Roman Catholic institution. Near at hand, amid crags dear to geologists for the story which they tell of past eras in the earth's formation, is the romantic Highland village of Arisaig, and Celts of the Highlands rejoice in possessing a Lochaber Lake, with banks overgrown by maples, beeches, and elms whose autumn tints are a glorious sight. *New Glasgow*, a town of 5000 people, or "thereby", is worthy of her distinguished name as an energetic and thriving place which lies in a great coal-mining district, and has a large interest in ship-building, iron-works, glass-works and steel-works. *Pictou*, with about 5000 people, is situated on a noble haven, having high, picturesque, well-populated shores, and receiving the waters of three rivers flowing through thickly-settled prosperous agricultural valleys. The land-locked harbour, with excellent anchorage, is the best on the northern coast of the province. In winter, its thickly-frozen surface presents a lively spectacle in the sport of curlers, skaters, and sleighing parties. The town, whose Indian name is of uncertain meaning, was founded in 1788, and the district, once the arena of fierce battles

between the Micmacs and the Mohawks, owed its first prosperity to the arrival, in 1773, of a body of nearly 200 Scots from the Highlands, who were followed, after some years of hard struggle ending in success, by others of their race. We read that the Indians prepared to depart on learning that the new-comers were like the men who had taken Quebec, and fairly fled to their forests, to trouble settlers no more, when they saw the Highland costumes and heard the bagpipes' unearthly yell. Pictou is a pleasant summer-resort, with good boating, sea-bathing, and lawn-tennis, and, among the hills, some scenery that recalls the Trossachs. The Academy, with a fine library and museum, has had among its graduates many eminent men of the Dominion, including Sir William Dawson and Dr. Grant, Principal of Queen's University.

Windsor, a town of about 6000 inhabitants, lies nearly in the centre of the province, about midway between Halifax and the Bay of Fundy. This third ship-owning port in the Dominion, surpassed only by St. John (N.B.) and Montreal, sends out large quantities of gypsum to Boston, Philadelphia, and New York. It is situated on the river Avon, filled to the brim of its estuary's lofty banks by the enormous tide of the Bay of Fundy, pouring in by way of Minas Basin. The industries are in iron-founding, cotton, furniture, and leather. After the banishment of the Acadians in 1755, the place was settled by retired British officers, and became a social centre in the province. The most disastrous fire which ever occurred in Nova Scotia almost destroyed the town on October 17th, 1897, rendering more than half the population homeless.

Halifax, the capital of the province, and the chief Atlantic seaport of the Dominion, lies nearer to the British Isles than any city on the American continent, being distant only 2180 miles from Cape Clear, in Ireland. The foundation and early history have been already given. The census of 1891 showed a population of 38,500 in this important place which, down to 1815, was little more than a military and naval port and arsenal, but has now become also a commercial city. The place presents a superb appearance with its climbing streets, soaring spires, and crowning fortifications to the voyager approaching it over the waters of the magnificent harbour, lying six miles long nearly north and south, with room for the navies of the world to repose in safety. The

town extends for about three miles along the western side of the harbour, with well-planned streets lighted by electricity and, in the business quarters, chiefly built of freestone. The public buildings are generally handsome, and there is a most creditable profusion of ecclesiastical, charitable, and educational institutions, worthy of a city which is both the see of the Roman Catholic archbishop presiding over Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, and of the Anglican bishop of Nova Scotia. The water supply is excellent, and Halifax is proved by figures to be one of the healthiest places in all America. In its commercial aspect, its importance is shown by lines of steamers to London, Glasgow, Havre, Liverpool, Newfoundland, the West Indies, to various ports in the Canadian maritime provinces, and to Boston, Massachusetts; by the possession of the largest graving-dock in America, 613 feet long, 102 feet broad, with 30 feet of water on the sills, built of granite and concrete, and completed in 1889 at the cost of £200,000; and by imports which, in 1895, reached a value of nearly 1½ millions sterling, with exports to a somewhat larger amount. The places of public resort include the noble *Point Pleasant Park*, an imperial property leased to the city, practically for ever, at a nominal payment, and open to the public, with its 160 acres of turf and trees, rock and brackens, wild-wood scenery and secluded dells; with broad and smooth carriage roads, winding footpaths, and drives that extend in all for 15 miles. In this charming and spacious pleasure-ground, commanding the finest sea-views, the wanderer among tall pines and wild flowers comes from time to time upon a strong redoubt or ambushed battery for the defence of this position on the peninsula between Halifax Harbour and the reach called the North-west Arm, 4 miles long and ½ mile wide, extending up towards Bedford Basin, described in our account of the Intercolonial Railway. The *Public Gardens* of 18 acres are among the finest in Canada for natural beauty improved by art, and are rendered more attractive weekly by the music of a military band, and on many summer evenings by concerts and brilliant illuminations. The *Green Market*, on Wednesdays and Saturdays, is worth a traveller's visit for its quaint display of country folk, Dutch, German, French, Scottish, Negro, and Indian in race, with their diversities of feature, costume, and twang of speech. The fish-market is notable, all the year

round, for a variety obtained from sea, and lake, and stream beyond all that can be seen elsewhere in America.

It is as a place of strength, however—as a naval fortress of the first class—that Halifax commands the attention of those who pay heed to the interests of the British Empire in the widest sense. Its defences are designed to protect the haven which is the head-quarters of our North American fleet and which contains the convenient and valuable coaling station supplied from the coal-fields of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton Island. At the entrance to the harbour, *Sambro Island*, with a lighthouse, has guns and artillerymen to give the alarm on the approach of a foe. Three miles from the city, *MacNab's Island*, with a beacon-light to warn ships from some neighbouring shoals, has stone batteries, of which the chief is called Sherbrooke Tower. On entering the harbour, hostile ships would be exposed to a cross-fire of heavy guns from the batteries of Point Pleasant and *Fort Ogilvie* on the western side, *Fort Clarence* on the east, and *Fort Charlotte* on St. George's isle, a small green spot in the middle of the harbour. The armament of this last fortress is of strength unknown to all save a few favoured or official persons, but it is certain that the place is full of troops, bomb-proof galleries, casemates and big guns. On a hill overlooking the town, at about 250 feet above sea-level, stands the impregnable citadel, *Fort George*, a huge earthwork armed chiefly with very heavy modern muzzle-loaders firing conical Palliser chilled-iron shot. This place is most jealously guarded from all intrusion that might reveal its secrets, and shows to the world outside little beyond a grass-covered roof to the casemates fronting a wide dry moat, and a narrow entrance-gate behind a swinging bridge, defended by eleven guns in a semicircular battery. A grand view of the city, harbour, and surrounding country is afforded from this point of vantage and security for Halifax and its harbour. Towards the upper end of the city, the royal dockyard, thoroughly equipped for naval needs, and cut off from the town buildings by a high stone wall, extends for half a mile along the harbour front, with men-of-war anchored off the shore. On the North-west Arm, almost opposite Point Pleasant Park, another strong work, *York Redoubt*, is prepared to give a warm reception to those who come on mischief bent.

The interior of Nova Scotia presents a surface diversified by

long parallel ranges of hills and valleys running east and west, with abundant woodland, many streams, and hundreds of small lakes. The thermometer has a range from above 90 degrees in summer to 20 below zero in winter, but this degree of cold is only found in the north and east, and the climate is remarkably healthy, and very temperate for such a latitude in America (43° 25′ to 47° north), owing to various circumstances. The effects of the icy current from Baffin's Bay are not felt on the southern and western sides. The waters of the Gulf Stream flow close along the southern shore. The hills of the interior guard the peninsula to a large extent from the cold winds of the north. When winter has passed away, vegetation makes very rapid progress, and autumn, for Nova Scotians, is a truly delightful time. Of the 5 millions of acres fit for tillage, about 2 million acres are under crop and pasture, and above 20,000 acres are given to fruit culture, with results, as already partly noticed, which prove the soil and climate to be equal to those of the best regions in Ontario. The most important product of the farms is hay, the annual crop of which, now largely sent in pressed bales to the English market, exceeds 600,000 tons. Little is done in dairy work, but large profits are made from cattle reared for the butcher. A great timber trade is carried on in exports to Europe, the United States, and the West Indies, of scantling and staves obtained from the forests that contain oaks and elms, maples and birches, larches and poplars, ash-trees and pines of good growth.

The fisheries, among the finest in the world, have a total value, from sea, river, and lake, approaching 1½ millions sterling a-year, giving employment to nearly 30,000 men on board 14,000 vessels of all sizes. Herring and mackerel are probably the most important items in an industry which also includes haddock and cod, halibut and hake, shad and salmon-trout, grayling and eels, lobsters and shell-fish of all edible kinds, with the trout and other fish of the rivers and lakes. The cured fish are exported to Brazil, the West Indies, and the Catholic countries of southern Europe. Manufactures have been noted in connection with the towns. Among the diverse forms of wealth in this highly favoured country, mining has an important place. In 1896, gold to the value of £100,000 was obtained, mainly in veins of quartz on the southern shore to the east of Halifax, and at some central points. Marble and stone are worked in many quarries, but the most valuable of Nova

Scotian minerals is the coal obtained, to the annual amount (including Cape Breton Island) of about 2 million tons, the chief workings in Nova Scotia proper lying about Pictou, Stellarton, and New Glasgow on the north coast, and at Springhill, near the isthmus of Chignecto. The internal trade of the province and communication with the rest of the Dominion are aided by above 800 miles of railway, with new lines in prospect. The annual imports have a value of about 2 millions sterling, two-fifths of the amount coming from the British Isles, and the largest other share from the United States. The exports of fish, minerals, lumber, agricultural products and manufactured goods have nearly an equal value, more than half the trade being done with the above-named countries. The shipping of Nova Scotia, which exceeds in tonnage, according to population, that of any other country in the world, does a large proportion of the carrying trade in modern commerce, and her vessels may be found in numerous ports loading and discharging cargoes. For the sportsman and the trapper, the hunting regions afford bears and foxes; moose and caribou (American reindeer); otter, mink, and sable; hares, squirrels, and raccoons; with abundance of winged game in woodcock and snipe, plover and partridge, geese, curlew and wild ducks. The revenue in 1895, derived chiefly from the Dominion treasury, mining-royalties, and receipts from crown-lands, exceeded 835,000 dollars (about £166,000), while the expenditure was 831,000 dollars, and the debt 1,988,000, or nearly £400,000. The province, represented in the Dominion parliament by 10 members of the Senate and 21 in the House of Commons, is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, aided by a responsible Executive Council of 9 members, a Legislative Council of 21 members, appointed for a term of years by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, and a House of Assembly of 38 representatives, elected for an extreme term of four years by manhood suffrage.

Cape Breton Island, now politically a part of Nova Scotia, has been repeatedly under our historical notice in connection with the great fortress and little town of Louisbourg, on the south-east coast, now represented only by the lines of the earthworks, the great slope of the glacis, and the arches of the casemates and magazines, with a fishing-village of about 1000 people at some little distance from the ruins, the place being used in summer as a

coaling-station. Beneath the waters of the spacious harbour lie the hulks of sunken war-ships, while the only monument of the gallant New England militia who died for Great Britain in the first successful siege is the low green slope where their remains were interred. The reunion with Nova Scotia, in 1820, was a propitious event for the little colony, which had sunk, since its existence as a separate province in 1784, into a poor condition, due to misrule and to exhaustion of revenue by the expense of superfluous officials. The island, an irregular triangle, lies east of Nova Scotia, divided from it by the Gut or Strait of Canso, a mile in breadth. With extreme length and breadth respectively of 100 and 85 miles, the rocky surface, rising at North Cape to 1800 feet above sea-level, has an area of 3120 sq. miles, and a population of about 85,000. The island is split almost in two by the deep inlet from the east called the *Bras d'Or Lake*, 50 miles long and 20 broad, affording access by water to most parts of the country, and united with the sea on the south-west coast by a ship-canal, half a mile in length, coming out at St. Peter's Bay. The area of this inland sea is about 500 sq. miles, with a depth from 12 to 60 fathoms. The scenery of the island has the diversity afforded by forest-clad crags and hills of gentle slope, lakes and streams, arms of the sea, fertile vales and plains. The climate is moist and milder than that of the mainland, being in summer of a very delightful and invigorating character. Nothing can be more charming than the trip at that season through the Bras d'Or, with its far-running branches, headlands of every form, and shores decked with hills and woods and glades, in an infinite variety of foliage and shape, with a sprinkling of Indian villages and of hamlets inhabited by Scots from the Highlands and their descendants, who form, with French Acadians of Breton origin, an almost wholly Celtic population. Those who are acquainted with the outer Hebrides will be interested in learning that the channel, two miles long and about a mile in width, by which the steamer passes from Great to Little Bras d'Or, has, for one name, that of Barra Strait, in a district peopled by immigrants from the island beaten by Atlantic waves on the British side of the ocean. The little town of *Baddeck*, on the north-western shore of the inland sea, with a population of 2000, is a delightful summer-resort in a region of streams that abound in trout, and of noble scenery in divers

forms. To the north, before reaching the open Atlantic, the voyager passes, to right or left, according to the channel chosen, Boularderie Island, 35 miles in length by 8 in extreme width, with romantic scenery on each of its coasts.

About 15 miles from the open sea to the east of the entrance to the Bras d'Or, at the head of an inlet running due south, lies *Sydney*, with a population of about 4000. This place, the seat of government when Cape Breton Island was a separate province, has an excellent harbour, closed indeed by ice in winter, but a busy scene in summer with steamers from the southern ports of the United States, and from the St. Lawrence, on their way to Europe, lying at the wharves to take in coals. The town of *North Sydney*, 8 miles away, is the centre of a district that produces some of the best coal in the world from deposits of vast wealth, making Cape Breton Island the most valuable portion, for mineral production, of the province of Nova Scotia. The population of North Sydney, which has some manufactures in leather, and large shipyards, is about 6000. The only other towns are *Arichat*, in a district mainly peopled by French Acadians, and *Port Hood*, the only safe harbour on the west coast north of the Strait of Canso. The island produces a little maize and other grain, not sufficing for home-consumption, and exports fish, timber, and some iron ore, in addition to its main trade in coal.

About 90 miles south-east of Nova Scotia, in 60° W. long. and 44° N. lat., in a part of the Atlantic severely subject to both fogs and storms, lies the ill-famed crescent-shaped bank of sand, a deposit of the drift of meeting currents, which bears the name of *Sable Island*. This most inhospitable place, whose only vegetation consists of scrubby grass, cranberry bushes and the like small growths, has been noticed in the early history of French voyages to North America, and is to be carefully distinguished from the Cape Sable Island above described, off the south-west coast of Nova Scotia. The low-lying parallel ridges of sand, parted for eight miles of their length by a lagoon, have been the scene of so many wrecks as to earn the various names of the "Charnel-house of North America", "The Sailor's Grave", and "The Ocean Graveyard". On a cloudy day, the place has almost the exact colour of the surrounding sea, thus leading mariners to the doom of predecessors whose fate is often recalled, after a gale,

by the exposure of skeletons and of the timbers of long-buried ships. The island, with its loose soil, is constantly altering in form, so that fathoms of water now lie over the spot where a house once stood, and a conical hill above 100 feet high has been lately raised above the surface. Early in the nineteenth century, the island was 40 miles long; in 1890 this had been reduced by one-half, affording a hope that the whole may ere long utterly vanish, but new shoals and banks are being constantly formed by the action of wind and sea, and at each end a dangerous sand-bar raises continuous lines of breakers in a storm, giving altogether nearly fifty miles of surf. The waves beat on the shore with an appalling thunderous roar and with a force that makes the whole mass quiver as if about to break up under the blows. Since 1873 the Canadian Government have erected three successive lighthouses, two of which were swept away, and the third is now in a precarious undermined condition. An establishment of about 20 persons is maintained, under a superintendent of the island, in charge of the lights, and for the relief of shipwrecked mariners, in whose behalf a hut stands at each end of the lake or lagoon, furnished with provisions and with written directions how to find the house of the superintendent. Animal life on this dreary spot consists of abundant rabbits and of a breed of strong hardy ponies like our "Shetlands". In the summer-months, the prevailing wind is south-west, usually attended by fog. At that season, great flocks of sea-birds resort to the place, and shoals of the hair-seal come thither for breeding. The walrus or sea-horse, once so plentiful, along with seals, as to attract numerous French and English sea-hunters, no longer visits the Sable Island shores. In times prior to the nineteenth century, this island was the abode or resort of an abominable crew of wreckers and pirates who committed crimes of unknown number and atrocity. The establishment of a place of refuge and of human aid for wrecked persons was due to the loss, in 1801, of the transport *Princess Amelia*, carrying above 200 officers, recruits, and crew, every one of whom perished. A gunboat sent out to search for possible survivors was also wrecked on the sand-banks, but not with serious loss of life. Five look-out stations, besides the chief post in the centre of the island, are now maintained, with signal-arrangements for communicating with each other, with head-quarters, and with vessels; and life-boats, surf-boats, rocket-

apparatus, life-buoys, and horses to drag boats to a suitable point for attempted rescue, are kept in constant readiness. In regard to the history of animal life on Sable Island, we may note a curious succession of plagues and remedies. The place had become overrun with rabbits when an old Norwegian vessel cast ashore brought a colony of rats. The rats so increased as to kill off nearly all the rabbits, and also to become destructive to the Government stores. An importation of cats from the mainland made an end of all the rats and the surviving rabbits. Then the cats, from their numbers, became a nuisance, and dogs were brought to put them down. The history of the dogs is not forthcoming, but a few years ago rabbits were again introduced as a source of food-supply; rats came ashore again from a wreck, overcame the rabbits, and began to be a new plague when, in 1890, a supply of cats was brought from Halifax, and the cats and the rats, for all we can tell our readers, are still at war. No person is allowed to reside without express permission from the Government. This is freely accorded to victims of strong drink who desire to be reformed, as no alcoholic liquors can be obtained, and the dismal scene of so many disasters is at last serving a good purpose as an asylum for Nova Scotian drunkards.

Prince Edward Island, the smallest of the Dominion provinces, lies in the south-west of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and is an irregular crescent in shape, with its upper half to the east of New Brunswick, and its lower half due north of Nova Scotia. From both those provinces the island is separated by Northumberland Strait, varying in width from 10 to 20 miles. With an extreme length of about 145 miles and a breadth varying from 4 to 34 miles, it has an area of about 2100 square miles or 1,344,000 acres. In 1891, the population, having increased very little (0·17 per cent only) since 1881, amounted to 109,000, giving a density of 54 per square mile. In race, the people are largely English, Irish, and Scottish, with many French, Scandinavians, and Germans. In religious faith, there were in 1891 about 48,000 Roman Catholics; 6700 Anglicans; 33,000 Presbyterians; 13,600 Methodists, and 6300 Baptists. The history down to 1801 having been already traced, we may resume by stating that the progress of the colony was retarded by the proprietary system under which absentee owners, holding the land only for speculation, prevented

settlement on reasonable terms. By the year 1806, about one-third of the land had become open to colonists by an arrangement which the government made with the owners. The Earl of Selkirk, whom we have seen as the energetic founder of the Red River settlement, was one of the proprietors, and in the earlier years of the nineteenth century that wise and beneficent land-owner transferred to this fertile country about 4000 hardy Highlanders from Scottish estates, and greatly promoted agricultural development. From 1813 till 1823 a tyrannical governor, Mr. C. D. Smith, virtually ruled without a parliament, summoning no popular assembly from 1814 till 1817, and promptly dismissing three which dared to oppose his views. Quit-rents due to proprietors were collected by seizure and forced sales, to the ruin of many farmers, and matters reached such a point that, after ten years of misrule, a petition to the home-government, carried to England by Mr. Steward, a champion of popular rights who barely escaped seizure and imprisonment on the eve of his departure, caused the immediate recall of the obnoxious Governor Smith. After this petty revival of Stuart methods of administration, Colonel Ready took office until 1831, and Prince Edward Island made good progress in road-construction, improved tillage, and consequent trade. A liberal legislature, in 1830, swept away Roman Catholic disabilities only one year after "emancipation" in the British Isles.

In 1837, under Sir Charles Fitzroy as a new Governor, an attempt was made to deal fully with the land-question by forcing the absentee English landlords who were leaving territory, in large areas, unlet and unimproved, to pay a heavy tax or forfeit their estates to the Crown, but the Colonial Secretary in London thwarted the good purpose of the Governor and the Legislature. For some years prior to 1850, the popular Assembly strove for responsible government and the control of the public revenues, a change of constitution which, with the consent of the Colonial Office, was brought about in 1851 under the rule of Sir Alexander Bannerman. The revenue and postal service were reformed, and in 1853 universal suffrage was established. In the following year, under Sir Dominick Daly, trade and prosperity were greatly stimulated by a reciprocity-treaty with the United States. The land question remained as a difficult and engrossing subject, and

several vain attempts were made at a settlement on equitable terms for all concerned. The entrance of the province, in 1873, into the Dominion, brought a long-delayed relief in the raising of a loan to purchase and re-allot proprietary estates, and the good work was completed when, in 1875, after due valuation by commissioners, the government acquired about 844,000 acres of land, of which, up to 1889, all but 97,000 acres had been disposed of in a way satisfactory to all parties. Going back for a moment from this anticipation of events, we find the colonists giving a most loyal reception to the Prince of Wales in 1860, and, a year later, when war with the United States appeared to threaten, raising a volunteer force of 1000 men. In 1873, the accomplishment of confederation relieved Prince Edward Island from a burden of debt, and assigned to her an annual subsidy of 30,000 dollars and a payment of 80 cents (about 3*s.* 3*d.*) per head on a population then estimated at 94,000, in addition to the deliverance, just recorded, from the incubus of greedy absentee land-owners.

The many inlets of the sea give a great extent of coast-line, and the island is divided into three peninsulas by the deep indentations of the southern coast at Hillsboro and Egmont Bays. The undulating surface of the beautiful country, styled by its people "The Garden of Canada", or "The Island", nowhere rises over 500 feet from sea-level, and presents the appearance of a well-tilled land of thriving farms and hamlets, very home-like to a traveller from England. The centre is still fairly wooded with birch and maple, beech and pine, and the summer-green of lawn and meadow rivals the brightest verdure of Ireland. From creek and cove, in every part, comes the bracing air of the sea, and the country is rich in springs and streams of the purest water. The climate, milder than that of the neighbouring mainland, is very healthy in its freedom from undue moisture and in the rarity of fog. Nearly all the rich red loamy soil is fit for tillage, partly resting on red sandstone, partly of alluvial formation. A fine natural manure, largely used by the farmers, is provided in the famous "mussel-mud", found in most of the rivers and bays as a deposit, from 5 to 20 feet in depth, composed of decayed oyster, clam, and mussel shells, raised through the ice in winter by machinery worked by horse-power. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the sober, religious and industrious people, who raise wheat, oats, and barley,

turnips and potatoes, largely exporting the potatoes and oats. The crops of oats are of finer quality than any others in the Dominion, and potatoes, which are here of special excellence, are often raised to the large amount of 250 bushels per acre. The horses have taken high places at Canadian exhibitions, and much heed is now paid to the rearing of horned cattle and sheep, the island mutton, fed on grass of admirable quality for the purpose, commanding good prices in the colonial markets. The fisheries of mackerel, herring, cod, hake, oysters, and lobsters are of great value, but are not so much regarded by the people as agriculture, the chief export in this line consisting of canned lobsters to the weight of about 5 million lbs. The oysters have now become also an important article of trade. The sportsman may find abundant trout in the streams, and specially good recreation in catching the sea-trout of the bays and inlets, "game" fish from 3 to 5 lbs. in weight, taken with a fly by casting from side to side in running before a light breeze. For gunners Prince Edward Island affords admirable sport, not with native game, but with the countless migratory birds which arrive on the shores—Canada and brent geese, black duck and teal, widgeon and woodcock, snipe and golden plover, and many other varieties, including great flocks of curlew. The wild geese come early in March, and are shot in the pools, amid fissures in the ice, from "goose-boats" made to resemble floating lumps of ice, the game being attracted by means of decoys. In the autumn, still better sport is given by the same birds as they return, in a wilder state, from the breeding-grounds in Greenland and Labrador. Brent geese arrive early in May, and these excellent birds for the table command a high price in the Boston and other markets. Black ducks, as good table-birds as the brent geese, breed in the island, and are fit for the sportsman from early in August until the middle of November, when they take their flight, to come again from the south in June. Plovers are found all over the island, and snipe and woodcock, in September, haunt the marshes and wood-covers. The native grouse, good birds for the table, are becoming rarer from the price which they fetch.

The manufactures, of no great importance, are chiefly concerned with butter and cheese, soap and starch, tanning and woollen goods, meat and fish preserving, grinding corn and sawing wood. A railway of 3 feet 6 in. gauge, belonging to and worked by the

Dominion Government, traverses the island from end to end, and the telegraph secures constant communication with the outer world, the steam-traffic with the mails across Northumberland Strait being sometimes delayed in winter by the ice. The revenue, in 1895, amounted to 277,000 dollars or nearly £56,000, with an expenditure of 279,800. The island has no public debt. The provincial government is in charge of a lieutenant-governor appointed by the Governor-General in council, with an Executive Council (cabinet or ministry) of nine, a Legislative Council of 13, and a House of Assembly of 30 members, both houses being chosen by the people, the latter for a maximum of four years. The capital, *Charlottetown*, with a population, in 1891, of 11,370, is a mostly wood-built town of very spacious streets, on a good harbour at the centre of the island, on the northern shore of the Hillsboro estuary. The Parliament House is a handsome stone structure and there are some good churches, a Roman Catholic Cathedral, a large convent, Wesleyan and R.C. Colleges, a fine new stone Post-Office, and a charming Park, with adjacent grounds famous for lawn-tennis and football. *Summerside*, a prosperous ship-building town of about 3000 people, with a large export trade in agricultural produce, lies at the head of Bedeque Bay on the south coast, and *Georgetown*, another ship-building place, beautifully situated on an east-coast peninsula, has an excellent harbour whence steamers ply to Pictou, in Nova Scotia, and to the Magdalen Islands.

CHAPTER IX.

North-Western Territories, British Columbia.

Early explorations in the vast North-West—Franklin, Back, and Richardson—Expedition of Sir John Rae in 1846. Area and population of the North-Western Territories—Rebellion of 1885 under Riel—Its suppression by Canadian troops—The four districts between Manitoba and the Rocky Mountains: District of Assiniboia. District of Saskatchewan. District of Alberta—Its ranches—Timber and mineral resources—Climate—Calgary city—Mineral springs of Banff—District of Athabasca. Boundaries, area, and population of British Columbia—Early voyages of discovery—Difficulties with the Spaniards—Vancouver Island—Physical features of the mainland—Its scenery—Climate—Fauna—Mineral wealth, timber, and fisheries—Agriculture—Vancouver city—Its destruction and speedy restoration—New Westminster. Area and population of Vancouver Island—Its fine climate and scenery—Fruit culture—The seal trade—Mineral resources—Victoria city and Esquimalt—Trade. Smaller islands on the coast.

Some account of British exploration in the vast North-West of America, down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, has appeared in a former part of this work. The history, after that date, belongs chiefly to that of Arctic adventure and research, a passion for which was revived in England in the later Georgian days, receiving encouragement and aid, from time to time, both from the Admiralty and from the Hudson's Bay Company. The great names of Franklin and Back are prominent in this matter. We have already seen Sir John Franklin in his distinguished career prior to 1819 and subsequent to 1845. Sir George Back, knighted in 1839, made admiral in 1857, and living till 1878, was born at Stockport in 1796, entered the navy at an early age, and in 1819 undertook, along with Franklin, Dr. Richardson, Robert Hood, and John Hepburn, a "noble specimen of a British seaman", a voyage and journey of discovery in the country west of Hudson Bay and to the coast of the Polar Sea eastwards from the Coppermine River. Under instructions from Earl Bathurst, Secretary for War and the Colonies, the party made their way from York Factory (Fort York), on Hudson Bay, by Nelson River and Lake Winnipeg to Cumberland House, on the Saskatchewan, noting, on this portion of their long and arduous travel, ten rivers and nine lakes. Thence they journeyed to the head-waters of the Athabasca (or Elk) and Missinnippi (or Churchill) Rivers, and northwards to Fort Chippewyan, on Lake Athabasca. Up to this point Franklin and his comrades had covered nearly 1600 miles,

and then, passing down Slave River and across Great Slave Lake, they wintered at Fort Enterprise, 550 miles away, a "factory" or station of the Company about midway between Great Slave and Great Bear Lakes. In 1820 the route was down the Coppermine River to the sea, where the shore of Coronation Gulf was explored. In 1825–27, Franklin and Richardson, with two separate parties, after passing down the Mackenzie River to the sea, first made known much of the coast between Icy Cape, in about 162° west longitude and the mouth of the Coppermine; each body of intrepid travellers covered in these expeditions about 2000 miles. In February, 1833, Lieutenant Back, having volunteered a search for Captain Ross, who was supposed to have been lost in an attempt at the traditional long-sought north-west passage, left London for the North American wilds, and on June 28th started from Fort Reliance, a station of the Hudson Bay Company on the eastern arm of Great Slave Lake, discovered (in 1834) Artillery Lake and the Great Fish, or Back's, River, descending which he arrived at the Polar Sea, and returned by the river, reaching England in the autumn of 1835, when he received the rare honour of captain's rank conferred by Order in Council. In 1837–39, Dease and Simpson, two officers of the Company, made exploration of parts of the coast left unvisited by Franklin and Back, so as to complete a fair knowledge of the shore of the Polar Sea between 94° and 165° west longitude. We must now turn to the work of that athletic, enthusiastic, and daring Scot, Sir John Rae, F.R.S., who ended his distinguished career so lately as July 1893. We have seen him elsewhere as a searcher for the lost Franklin. In July 1846, under the auspices of Sir George Simpson, Governor-in-Chief of the Hudson Bay Company's territories, Rae started from Fort Churchill on the west side of the bay, with a party of thirteen persons, including two Eskimo (Esquimaux) as interpreters. By boat and sledge more than 1200 miles were accomplished, and during that year and 1847 much coast was explored on the main shore and islands of the Polar Sea. During part of the journey the leader of the explorers, whose skill with the gun and rifle was afterwards well known on his native country's moors and at Volunteer meetings, supplied his party with food by shooting deer and hares and partridges, and by catching plenty of salmon and trout.

Turning now to the *North-Western Territories* as a political

and colonial region, we may estimate the area at about 1,250,000 sq. miles, with a population of 100,000, an increase of 75 per cent between 1881 and 1891. In religious faith, there were then about 13,000 Roman Catholics, 14,000 Anglicans, 12,500 Presbyterians, 8000 Methodists, and 1550 Baptists, the residue being returned as "Pagans". The only notable event in the history of this region since settlement began is the rebellion of 1885, caused by discontent among the half-breeds after the creation, in 1882, of the four districts to be hereafter described. These people, in the Saskatchewan and Assiniboia territories, complained of the proceedings of the Dominion land-surveyors in re-arranging farms in their occupation, and also dreaded actual dispossession at the hands of land-companies whose grants appeared to overlap their holdings. It seems that their complaints did not obtain effective notice from departmental authorities, and Louis Riel, the former leader of the Red River rebellion, was invited to become their champion. His "Bill of Rights", making large demands on behalf of the half-breeds and the Indians, either never reached the government at Ottawa, or was disregarded, and in March, 1885, an armed revolt took place. The government-stores at Duck Lake, near Fort Carleton, on the north branch of the Saskatchewan, were seized, the Indian agent was made prisoner, the telegraph-wires were cut, and messengers were sent to obtain the help of the Indian tribes. Riel was supported by a few hundreds of the half-breeds and a small number of Indians, when on March 26th a detachment of his forces, about 200 men, under his "Adjutant-General", Gabriel Dumont, gave a check to a body of sixty of the North-West Mounted Police, and forty volunteers, under Major Crozier. After a fierce fight, in which the rebels had the advantage of good cover, the troops were obliged to retreat, leaving eleven volunteers and three of the police dead on the snow, and carrying off nine men severely wounded. Fort Carleton, a rude stockaded post, commanded from neighbouring heights, was abandoned and accidentally burned. Many more Indians took up the cause of Riel, and a large body of loyal settlers was soon beleaguered by savages in the barracks near Battleford, about 90 miles west of Duck Lake. A serious effort was needed, and, when the news arrived at Ottawa, the volunteers promptly responded to the call of the Minister of Militia. A regular spring-campaign was organized

and carried out with consummate skill, good discipline, steadiness and courage on the part of those chiefly concerned. About 4000 men from divers Provinces, including 280 "regulars", and several batteries of artillery, were placed under the command of Major-General Middleton, a veteran of good service in New Zealand and during the Indian Mutiny. The troops, horses, guns, and stores were conveyed in a few days, by the Canadian Pacific Railway, to Qu'Appelle, in Assiniboia, within 200 miles of the scene of rebellion in Saskatchewan. This operation had been one of considerable difficulty and hardship, as there were several gaps in the incomplete line, north of Lake Superior, amounting in all to above 90 miles, over which distance men were conveyed in sledges, or marched through snow and slush, at the cost of frost-bite and snow-blindness to many sufferers. Meanwhile, in the far west, a band of Indians, under "Big Bear", massacred two priests and several other settlers, and then, excited by this atrocity, hurried to attack Fort Pitt, a small stockaded barrack, about 120 miles west of Battleford, held by about twenty Mounted Police, under Captain Dickens, a son of the great author. The place, which was a Hudson Bay Company's "factory" or post, was surrounded by hundreds of savages, who shot one of the Police, and threatened death to the civilian settlers. "Big Bear" then offered protection for the score or so of civilians, if the Police would surrender the post, under penalty of its destruction by fire. Having no means of resisting such a force, Captain Dickens withdrew his men down the river to Battleford with great risk in a "cranky" boat encumbered by floating ice on a rapid stream. A change came over the scene when Middleton and his men appeared. The little army was formed in two columns, under the general and Colonel Otter, and between the last week of April and the middle of May, in a series of operations involving enormous labour for the carriage of supplies, the enemy were, after sharp fighting and with considerable loss to the victors, driven from Battleford and defeated in a two-days' battle at Batoche, ending in a general bayonet-charge of the Canadian troops against lines of rifle-pits. Riel surrendered on May 15th, while Dumont escaped over the border into Montana. Before the close of June, fighting in other parts, and the surrender of Riel, caused most of the Indians and half-breeds to ask for terms, and a close pursuit of "Big Bear" broke up his

forces and compelled him to give himself up as a deserted starving man. The brave campaigners had a grand reception at Winnipeg, Toronto, London, Ottawa, Montreal, Halifax and other leading towns of the Dominion, and Riel, tried, convicted, and sentenced to death at Regina (in Assiniboia) in July, appealed in vain, first to the Queen's Bench in Manitoba, and then to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England, and was hanged on November 15th. Eight Indians guilty of the massacre were executed, and many Indians and half-breeds were sentenced to imprisonment for various terms.

In the summer of 1897 intense excitement was caused in the Canadian Dominion, the United States, and in other parts of the world, by phenomenal discoveries of gold in a remote region of the North-West Territories of Canada. A rush of husbands leaving wives; of policemen deserting their beats; of clerks, lawyers, doctors, merchants, shopkeepers, and men of every class of workers and adventurers set in for the new El-Dorado on the Klondike (or Deer) River, a tributary of the Yukon from the east in about 63° north latitude. Goldfields on the Yukon were discovered in 1887, and were described in that year by Dr. Dawson, of the Canadian Geological Survey. They were situated at a spot called Forty Mile Creek, on 141° west longitude, forming the boundary between the Dominion and Alaska. About 200 miles up stream from Forty Mile Creek, and from thirty to forty miles within British territory, lies the new goldfield of Klondike, in an auriferous region as large as France. The first discoveries of gold were made there by Mr. Cormack, of the Canadian Geological Survey, in August, 1896, and within a fortnight 200 large "claims" had been marked off. The extreme richness of the district in gold is proved by the fact that Mr. Mackintosh, Lieutenant-governor of the N. W. Provinces, estimates the yield in the winter of 1896–97 as amounting in value to 3,000,000 dollars or £600,000. The workings on the Klondike are of the alluvial or *placer* class, meaning that the earth is dug up and washed with sluices. For some time after the first discovery of the precious metal in the Yukon region, work was only carried on during the three or four months of summer, but the miners now collect the earth all winter, from October to June, clad in furs. Great fires are built, and when a few feet of earth are thawed beneath them, this is dug up

and another fire made until the bed rock is reached. The accumulation of earth is washed out when the thaw releases the frost-bound waters. The excitement that arose in 1897 was mainly due to the arrival at San Francisco, on July 14th, of forty men from the Klondike mines, bringing with them over 500,000 dollars' value (£100,000) in gold-dust. A man and his wife, working since April, 1896, had made 60,000 dollars (£12,000). The climate is of extreme severity in winter, and the region was in 1897 very difficult of access for travellers either by land or by the sea-route.

The vast territory between Manitoba and the Rocky Mountains is that included in the four districts Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca. The general geography has been already given, and we need only remind readers that the ground, going westwards, rises from Manitoba, which is about 700 feet above sea-level, first into a steppe (Assiniboia and Saskatchewan) having a mean altitude of about 1600 feet, and then, in a third prairie plateau (Alberta and Athabasca) reaching a height of between 3000 and 4000 feet, arrives at the base of the Rockies. About 90 per cent of Assiniboia and Saskatchewan consists of farming land of the very best quality, while the country to the westward is of more broken character, diversified by rolling hills, salt lakes and ponds, alkaline flats, deep ravines, and rivers flowing in deep channels, and is better suited for pasturage than for the plough. For a full description we must refer to *Picturesque Canada*, with its excellent account and engravings illustrating the life and scenery of these rising colonies, with the trains of emigrants' wagons; half-breed and Indian camps; troopers of the North-West Mounted Police, the terror of any unruly Indians, and of the whisky-traders whom they sternly oust over the border-line into the States; and an endless succession of lakes and streams, forest and grass, until the traveller reaches the treeless prairies, cleared of the timber by recurring fires due to careless or wantonly wasteful "campers", and beholds, in the west of Alberta, the grand spectacle of the Rockies towering over foot-hills and plains and valleys once blackened by herds of buffalo that are being replaced by Herefords, polled Angus, and other breeds of domestic cattle.

Assiniboia, bounded on the east by Manitoba, extends westwards to 111° W. long., and between 49° and 52° N. lat., with an

area of about 90,000 square miles. To the north lies Saskatchewan, to the west, Alberta, and the southern boundary is the State of Montana. Along the Canadian Pacific Railway little towns have arisen, Qu'Appelle and Broadview, Indian Head and Moose Jaw, Medicine Hat and Moosomin, Maple View and Swift Current. At and around these queerly-named centres is found a remarkable variety of emigrants in point of race. Near Moosomin are settlements of Scottish "crofters", partly sent out by Lady Gordon Cathcart, one being known as the Benbecula Colony, from the island in the Outer Hebrides. To the north lies a settlement of Russian Jews, and the colonists include people sent out by the Church and East-End (of London) Emigration Societies, with Bohemians, Hungarians, Scandinavians, Icelanders, French Canadians, Germans, Roumanians, French settlers direct from France, and Indians on reserve-lands near Qu'Appelle. The soil is generally a rich loam, easily tilled by hand-labour, and the Dominion Government has established an experimental farm, for the instruction of settlers, at Indian Head, 44 miles east of Regina, the capital of the district, head-quarters of the Mounted Police, and seat of government for the North-West Territories, with a population of about 4000. The cattle thrive in winter on the hay cut from the prairies, which reaches a length of from 60 to 70 inches. The peculiar effect of the long winter on the rapidity of vegetation in spring and summer is that the soil, becoming frozen to a depth of 6 or 7 feet, has its upper layer thawed first so as to permit seeding, and the successive thawing of the lower strata, as the solar heat increases, provides a reservoir of ascending moisture which, as it meets the upper heat, forms a natural hot-bed producing wonderful results in the brief space of time allowed for growth.

Saskatchewan, bounded on the east by Manitoba and Keewatin; on the north by the region called North-West Territory or the "Great Reserve" of the Dominion, stretching to Alaska and the Polar Sea; on the south by Assiniboia, and on the west by Alberta, has an area of about 107,000 square miles, less settled than Assiniboia, owing to its distance from the Canadian Pacific Railway, with which connection by branches is being made. From west to east the territory is watered by the North and South Saskatchewan and their tributaries, and includes hundreds of lakes varying in size, mostly well supplied with fish. The chief towns are Prince

Albert and Battleford, the latter being situated on the south bank of the Battle River, near its confluence with the North Saskatchewan. On the opposite bank are the quarters of a detachment of the North-West Mounted Police.

The important district of *Alberta*, bounded on the east by Assiniboia and Saskatchewan, on the south by Montana (U.S.), on the north by Athabasca, and on the west by British Columbia, has also an area of about 107,000 square miles. This splendid territory, richly endowed by nature with various forms of wealth, has magnificent scenery on the western frontier, and many streams flowing down from the mountains with waters clear and cold, reflecting the blue sky above, and abounding with fine trout. As regards resources, the region may, in the first place, be described as the chief dairy-district, in its possibilities, of North America. The richness and luxuriance of the grass, and the excellent supply of purest water, make it an abode of ideal fitness for cattle. The country is one of grazing-farms or "ranches", a term derived from the Spanish word *rancho*, a "mess" or "mess-room", used in Mexico for a herdsman's hut, and then transferred to the land in charge of him and his fellow-ranchmen or "cowboys". The cattle on such an estate are kept in a half-wild condition, with little or no provision of shelter and no artificial feeding. In 1893 the ranching grounds in the territory covered an area of 1,500,000 acres, distributed among 148 lessees. The system of granting large areas of land on lease for ranching has ceased. One of the British delegates who visited the country in 1890 describes a ranch covering 17 square miles, with good buildings and cattle-yards, stocked with 1200 horses, including 12 stallions and 200 imported Irish mares, and with about 3000 head of cattle. Of all these animals, the stallions alone receive any oats as fodder, and the mares foal unaided in the open, the whole great establishment being in charge of but eight men. At another ranch of 60,000 acres, the yearly product of foals was 250. A third estate, that of the North-West Cattle Company, consists of about 240,000 acres, leased at the rate of one cent (½*d.*) per acre a year, and feeding 10,000 cattle and 800 horses. In 1890, 2000 calves were born, and many hundreds of steers were sold at an average price of 50 dollars or £10. The Cochrane Ranch, named from its owner, the famous Lower Canada breeder of shorthorns, contains about 200,000 acres, running up in

undulating plains towards the Rockies, and up the lower spurs, where the best grass is found. There are 12,000 head of cattle, including many Herefords, and 100 horses. In the summer of 1890, 1000 head of cattle, despatched to England from this estate, fetched £17 a head at Liverpool. The calves of the year numbered 2000, and we read that many are devoured by the wolves. Alberta, however, is not only admirably suited for stock and dairy farming, but is proved to produce excellent crops of wheat, barley, oats, roots, and vegetables. Immense supplies of timber exist in the valleys flowing through the foot-hills of the Rockies towards the Saskatchewans, and in a position so favourable for water-transport, lumbering should become an important industry. The mineral resources of the country are remarkable in the way of petroleum deposits, and especially in coal, the extent of the coal-fields being the greatest yet known in the world. In 4 square miles, four seams with an aggregate amount of 25 million tons have been discovered, and enormous beds of anthracite and bituminous coal exist, some of which are now being profitably worked. The Galt mine at Lethbridge, connected with the Canadian Pacific Railway by a line 109 miles long, is supplying the Montana market as well as various places in the Dominion.

The climate of Alberta has peculiar features in the winter season. With the wind from the west, its prevailing quarter, the weather is mild, and the snow on the ground quickly vanishes from view. A wind from the icy plains of the north may send the thermometer down to 30° below zero, an extreme point reached in November, 1883. The chief town, *Calgary*, with a population of about 6000, is named from a bay on the north-west coast of the Scottish island of Mull, in the Inner Hebrides, and lies in a beautiful position at the confluence of the Bow and Elbow rivers, commanding a fine view of the Rockies, and having a station on the Pacific Railway. *Fort Edmonton* is a thriving settlement on the north bank of the North Saskatchewan. The place lies in a country of splendid farming-land, rich forests, coal, lakes and streams full of white fish and sturgeon, and has every prospect of becoming one of the chief distributing centres of the North-West. *Lethbridge*, the head-quarters of the chief coal district now worked, is a neat and busy town. *Fort McLeod*, in the south, is a ranching centre, and *Banff*, on the Canadian Pacific line north-west of Cal-

gary, as the line proceeds towards Kicking Horse Pass, has hot mineral springs, containing much sulphate, of great value for many forms of disease. The town, with a growing population of 1000, has thousands of yearly visitors, and lies in a tract of 260 square miles or 166,400 acres, laid out by the Dominion Government as a National Park. The district thus selected around the springs rising in Sulphur Mountain near Banff station, at a point about 4500 feet above the sea, near the confluence of the Bow and Spray rivers, includes some peaks of the Rocky Mountains, and a striking combination of mountain and valley, river and lake, glen, waterfall, and wild forest that make it one of the finest recreation-grounds of its class in the world. The curative effects of the mineral waters are greatly aided by the clear, pure, and bracing mountain-air. The lover of romantic views may see the Bow river breaking in some places through perpendicular walls of rock 200 feet high, and with rapids or successive cascades of 60 feet total fall in the space of 150 yards. From many snow-crowned peaks the streams pour down in wonderful profusion, to form rivers and lakes in the valleys, and the sportsman has at his disposal the abundant fish, with a rich variety of game animals and birds in the woods. A nursery is formed for the cultivation of the indigenous trees, shrubs, and flowers, and the chief lakes are connected by roads with the town and the hotels erected round the springs.

Athabasca, lying between Alberta and the "Great Reserve", with British Columbia as its western boundary, has an area of about 106,000 sq. miles, watered by the Peace and Athabasca rivers and their tributaries. The region lies far north from the line of railway, and is at present little colonized or even explored. Great deposits of coal, petroleum, gypsum and other minerals are known to exist, and the mild climate and fertile soil afford prospect of a great development in this region.

British Columbia is bounded on the north, at the parallel of 60° north latitude, by the North-West Territory or Great Reserve; on the east, by the Rocky Mountains, separating it from Athabasca and Alberta; on the south, at the parallel of 49° north latitude, by the State of Washington (U.S.); and on the west by Alaska and the Pacific Ocean. The area of this great territory, more than three times as large as the whole British Isles, is estimated at 390,000 sq. miles, including Vancouver Island, the Queen Charlotte

Isles, and others off the coast. The census of 1891 gave the population at 98,000, showing a density of 0·3 per sq. mile, and an increase of 98·5 per cent since 1881. In religious faith, there were 20,400 Roman Catholics; 23,600 Anglicans; 15,300 Presbyterians; 14,300 Methodists, and 3100 Baptists. The residue were Pagans, chiefly Indian and Chinese in race.

The real history of this colony begins with the close of the eighteenth century. Vancouver Island was discovered in 1592 by a Greek navigator in the employ of the Spanish viceroy of Mexico. His name was Apostolos Valerianos, but he is better known by his Spanish name of Juan de Fuca, remaining in that of the strait which separates Vancouver Island from the State of Washington, and connects the Pacific Ocean with the Gulf of Georgia. The coast was not visited by any notable Englishman until 1778, when Captain Cook, sailing along the shores which Drake, two centuries before, had styled "New Albion", failed to see the strait, and, voyaging up the west coast of the great island, put in at the inlet which he named King George's Sound, now known by its Indian name "Nootka" Sound. On his charts the island was represented as part of the mainland. His interesting and accurate notes on the forests and fish, the fur-bearing creatures, and other resources of the region, caused the beginnings of trade with China. British merchants residing in the East Indies placed two ships in charge of Lieutenant Meares, of the royal navy, with instructions to take measures to promote commerce with the north-west American coast. Some land was bought from the Indian chief at Nootka, and a fortified "factory" or trading-post was built. The Spanish government, resenting this interference with what they held to be their rights, sent some ships of war in 1789. The British vessels and station were seized, but when Meares, by petition, brought the matter before the House of Commons, and a prospect of war arose, Spain consented to make restitution. It was this transaction which led to the discovery that the territory at Nootka was on an island. Captain George Vancouver, of the royal navy, who had served as a midshipman under Captain Cook in his Pacific voyages, was sent out with the *Discovery* sloop of war to receive the formal surrender of the territory and buildings at Nootka. Passing up the Strait of Fuca, he took possession, with the usual formalities, of the coast on the south; then, passing northwards, he gave the

name of "Gulf of Georgia" to the inner sea, and, making his way again into the open Pacific by the waters which he styled "Queen Charlotte Sound", he proved that the region treated by Cook as mainland was insular, and the fine territory justly received the name of "Vancouver Island". At Nootka he discharged his special duty, and was then engaged, for several years, in the careful examination of about 2000 miles of coast in the north-west of America. No attempt at colonization was made, though the mainland of what became British Columbia, and some of the islands, were visited by adventurous persons connected with the fur-trade of the Hudson Bay Company and its rival, the North-West Fur Company. In 1843, the Hudson Bay authorities obtained from the Crown a lease of Vancouver Island and the adjacent mainland, and built a trading-post and fort at the spot where the city of Victoria now stands. In 1849, Vancouver Island became a Crown colony. A few years later, the discovery of gold in the valley of the Fraser River, on the mainland, brought a rush of immigration, and in 1858 between 20,000 and 30,000 men were digging on the terraced slopes of the Fraser and its tributaries. Firm local rule was then needed, and British Columbia was in that year made a separate Crown colony. In 1866, the two were united, and in July, 1871, as above recorded, British Columbia became a province of the Dominion of Canada.

We deal first, in the way of description, with British Columbia proper, or the mainland thus called. The country has been styled "a sea of mountains", and consists of the succession of ranges already mentioned, with countless streams rushing down to join the Fraser, 800 miles long, and 600 yards wide at its chief outlet in the Gulf of Georgia; the Columbia, whose upper course is within the province; the North and South Thompson, the Eagle, the Finlay, the Skeena, the Kootenay, and other rivers. There are many small lakes westwards of the Eagle Pass on the Gold Range, all being on the Eagle River, falling into Lake Shuswap. Between the Rocky Mountains and the coast, there is nothing in the way of prairie or plain, and the Pacific slope, on the west of the Cascade Range, consists of a series of table-lands, or natural terraces, descending to the shore of the ocean with rugged and scarped sides. Grand and varied scenery abounds in such a region. The coast-line is seamed by fiords that cut their way through snow-

capped mountains into the heart of the Cascade Range, and at the head of Bute Inlet, "great mountains, curtained with glaciers, rise almost perpendicularly into the region of eternal snow. The only sound heard is the muffled roar of cataracts leaping from bluff to bluff, or washing down the slippery rocks in broad white bands". The scenery on the Pacific Railway has been already noted, and we may here mention, both as a piece of engineering, and for its picturesque views, the wagon-road connecting the Cariboo mines on the Fraser with the settlements by the sea. The road was hewn by the early gold-diggers sideways, for miles in length, out of rocks rising almost perpendicularly from the river to a height, at some points, of 1000 feet, or was cut through projecting spurs of the hills, or built up with timber supports or "crib-work". The largest area fit for tillage is found in the valley of the lower Fraser, or New Westminster district, and on the upper part of that river, and along some of its chief tributaries, there are considerable tracts of alluvial soil.

As regards the coast scenery, Lord Dufferin, in 1876, described it as not paralleled by any country in the world. "Day after day for a whole week, in a vessel of nearly 2000 tons, we threaded an interminable labyrinth of watery lanes and reaches that wound endlessly in and out of a network of islands, promontories, and peninsulas, for thousands of miles, unruffled by the slightest swell from the adjoining ocean, and presenting at every turn an ever-shifting combination of rock, verdure, forest, glacier, and snow-capped mountain of unrivalled grandeur and beauty." He then noted the "wonderful system of navigation, equally well adapted to the largest line-of-battle ship and the frailest canoe, thus fringing the entire seaboard of the province, and communicating at points, sometimes more than a hundred miles from the coast, with a multitude of valleys stretching eastward into the interior, while at the same time it is furnished with innumerable harbours on either hand", as providing the most admirable "facilities of inter-communication for the future inhabitants of this wonderful region". Another Governor-General, the Marquis of Lorne, dwells with delight on the forest scenery of these ocean inlets—the Douglas firs and cypresses, rising to heights of 150 and 250 feet, and with girths of 25 to 30 feet, growing in "tremendous aisles where the great shafts rise from the thickets of glossy-leaved shrubs, to be

lost to sight in the dark green gloom above". "I do not think there is any scenery more solemn and beautiful than the interior of such a grove. It wants, of course, the intense colour and the sunlit glory of the liana-hung woods of the South, and the undergrowth is not so varied or bright. But the russets and browns, the greys and sombre greens, the purple tints on the straight stems varied by the vivid hues of the moss, which provides a compass for the wanderer, because it grows most abundantly on the side which feels the western sea-moisture—all are most delicious to the eye. And overhanging the sea-margins in crannies of the rocky bays or covering the promontories, are the beautiful madrona-trees, the large-leaved arbutus, with the trunks as red as coral. All this forest is evergreen. Winter strips the scattered maples of their autumnal fire, but makes little change on the steep slopes of these deep lochs."

The climate presents many varieties. In the coast region it greatly resembles that of the south of England, except that the summers are much less moist. In the south there is little rain or snow, so that arable land needs irrigation. The middle zone, from 51° to 53° north latitude, has a considerable rainfall. In no part of the interior are the extremes of heat and cold so great as to the east of the Rockies, and the climate is for the most part drier. The average temperature is about 10 degrees warmer than on the corresponding portion of the Atlantic coast. The *fauna* of the country providing sport for the gun includes black and grizzly bears, caribou (American reindeer), mountain-sheep, several kinds of grouse, and abundant varieties of water-fowl. The streams are rich in charr, trout, salmon and other fish. The mosquitos are described by travellers as a worse plague in some wild parts than those of any other country visited in the course of extensive wanderings. The mineral resources are very great. Nearly every stream has traces of gold, and mines paying a dividend are at work in many parts. The chief gold-producing rocks occur just west of the Rockies, and in the valleys of the Fraser and Anderson rivers. Rich silver ore has been found on the Fraser, and coal, lignite, iron, copper, galena, mercury, platinum, bismuth, antimony, plumbago and other minerals and metals have been discovered in various parts of the province. The lumber trade is becoming important in its product of Douglas pine, fir, yellow

cypress, and maple, which are shipped to South America, Australia, China, and the Cape. The fisheries, on the rivers and the coast, are of great value in salmon, trout, sturgeon, smelt, and herring. The abundance of salmon, of the finest quality, is almost beyond conception. The Fraser is sometimes packed with shoals at various points, and the catch on the coast, as far north as Alaska, is very great. Of over two dozen "canneries", or stations for packing the salmon for exportation, about one-half are on the Fraser. A very large capital, and about 6000 people, are engaged in providing fresh, smoked, and dried fish of various kinds, salmon being exported to the amount of nearly 10,000 tons annually to the British Isles, Canada, Australia, South America, and the Pacific islands. Returning for a moment to the mineral wealth, we note that between 1862 and 1896 inclusive gold to the value of over 10 millions sterling was found, mostly from the alluvial deposits, as the auriferous quartz, up to that date, had scarcely been touched. British Columbia is never likely to become a great agricultural country, but there are large tracts of arable land that produces, in some parts, from 30 to 40 bushels of wheat per acre. The hills and valleys have abundance of most nutritious grass, furnishing food for horses and horned cattle throughout the winter, during which shelter is needed only for sheep. All the fruits of the temperate zone, in fine quality and size, can be grown, and an industry in this line is being developed with the best prospects. In addition to the far-penetrating waterways from the sea, and the rivers of the province, communication is now to be furnished by a railway joining New Westminster with the American Pacific coast system, and thus completing the connection between the Dominion and Mexico, and by other lines opening up the country in agricultural and mining districts.

The chief towns are Vancouver and New Westminster. *Vancouver*, with a population (1900) of 25,000, is the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and stands on Burrard Inlet, at the head of which lies Port Moody, the former terminus, with a population of about 4000. Vancouver is a remarkable instance of rapid rise in colonial towns. In 1885 the site was covered by dense forest. The position, on one of the finest possible harbours, and the progress westwards of the Canadian Pacific Railway, suggested great advantages for a commercial town, and buildings

arose as the line drew ever nearer to the coast. By June, 1886, a little "city", mainly wooden, stood amidst the stumps and logs of a clearing in the primeval woods. On June 13th, Pentecost or Whit Sunday, when the people had returned from morning service, in a hot time with a pleasant breeze, fire from the neighbouring bush, with a wind of rising strength, swept down upon the place, drove out the inhabitants in flight to the water's edge, bearing such scraps of property as could be hastily snatched and carried, and reduced nearly all the town to ashes, with the loss of a few lives and serious burns to a large number of sufferers. Colonial energy was soon at work to repair this grievous disaster and loss. On Sunday evening, the town lay in ruins, and the people had been deprived of tools, clothing, stores of provisions, nearly all, in fact, of their household goods. At six o'clock on Monday morning, teams were at work bringing fresh lumber for rebuilding. On Tuesday morning many houses and stores were roofed, and were occupied at night. A little help from outside, within a week of the fire, had enabled a new Vancouver to arise, and on Saturday night a traveller could find hotel accommodation and procure most of the necessaries of life. In June, 1887, there was a flourishing town, connected by railway and ship with the rest of the world, and possessing wharves and docks, warehouses, foundries, factories, public institutions, excellent stores or shops, good hotels and private houses, miles of good roads and side-walks. In June, 1888, "every appliance of the most advanced civilization", according to a traveller's testimony, "could be found there". There were 18 miles of streets, 24 miles of good side-walks; complete sewerage, nearly complete preparations for an inexhaustible supply of the purest water; gas and electric light; a perfect telephone system, and a population of over 8000. The outskirts had many miles of excellent roads, giving charming drives around the end of the peninsula on which the city is built, and round the Government Reserve or Public Park, and along English Bay, in the beautiful district called Stanley Park. The work of building went on apace, and in 1891 there were handsome churches, schools, and hotels; two newspapers and electric tram-cars. In 1895, the city possessed a fine opera-house, many good buildings of granite and brick, smelting-works, and steamship service to San Francisco and Alaska, China and Japan. *New*

Westminster, with a population of 9000 (1900), was formerly the capital of British Columbia, and stands on the north bank of the Fraser, 10 miles from its mouth. This thriving place has extensive saw-mills and salmon canneries. One of the latter establishments employs 400 hands in the factory, and as many more in providing the fish, and in a recent year turned out 25,000 cases of salmon, with 48 one-pound tins in each case. The fish are all taken by net between the second week in July and the end of August.

Vancouver Island, 278 miles in length, and from 50 to 65 miles wide, has an area of about 16,000 square miles, and a population (1891) of 30,000. The bold and beautiful coast has, on the west, fiords running far inland, with steep rocky banks, while other parts display abrupt rocky headlands and cliffs, fine harbours, pebbly beaches, and sheltered coves. The densely-wooded mountainous country has no navigable rivers, but only streams that, nearly dry in the summer, are torrents used for working mills in the season. The climate on the south-east is one of the most delightful in the world. The cold in winter is tempered by the influence of the great ocean stream of warm water known as the "Japan Current", which flows southwards along the coast and brings perpetual summer to the regions within reach of its full effects. Far less rain falls in this part of Vancouver Island than farther north, or on the mainland, because much of the moisture is taken from the atmosphere by the mountains lying between Victoria and the open Pacific, and a second precipitation does not occur until the winds strike the high lands of the opposite coast. Snow seldom falls and never lies long. At the same time, the climate is invigorating, with an annual mean temperature of 55° F., and an average rainfall of 25 inches in the year. In scenery, this fine colonial possession is most diversified, and one of the loveliest countries in the world. The mountains rise to 7000 or 8000 feet, and the interior has many charming lakes. The gardens contain the British shrubs and flowers—ivy and laurel, holly and hawthorn, and roses of surprising beauty. In country walks and drives, the roadside is seen adorned by masses of bracken, and by wild roses of marvellous size and perfume. The English yellow broom grows profusely, and British daisies deck the lawns. Society there, and on the mainland, includes many full-blooded or half-breed Indians, British in dress, demeanour, and conduct. Some of the most

charming ladies are of Indian race, and one of the judges—a good classical scholar, a capital public speaker, and an admirable converser—is a nearly full-blooded Indian.

Vancouver Island is not, in surface, well suited for agriculture, but about a million acres are very fit for tillage, chiefly on the eastern and southern coasts, where the principal settlements lie. The growing of fruit is becoming an important industry, very fine apples being a chief product. In addition to sea-fisheries like those on the mainland coast, schooners from Victoria obtain seals in great numbers, during the summer and early autumn, in the Behring and Arctic Seas, and it is from this source that the seal-skins in the London market are chiefly supplied. Indian seal-hunters also frequent the west coast of Vancouver Island and the north-west shores of the mainland. The wild mountainous country of the north and west of the island, where the higher peaks are crested with eternal snow, and dense forests of fir and cedar are found, with great lonely lakes and almost impenetrable jungle, has black bears and wolves, elks and eagles among its fauna. The coast in this region shows here and there a great mountain sloping steeply into the sea, clothed to the water-line with the dark green of pines and firs, while at intervals are beautiful bays, with stretches of golden sand ever fringed with snowy surf. From the vast Pacific stretching away to the west and north and south, great glassy swells, sometimes nearly a mile in length, come rolling in, round and smooth until they reach the shoal-water of the beach, when they rise up into great green walls, partly transparent where the sunlight strikes, and then, with a fringe of pure white foam, break in thunder on the shingle or sand. In this delightful region, three-fourths of the year has little else than soft warm breezes and a sky of unchanging blue, lit up at night by brilliant stars or an almost daylight radiance of the moon.

The mineral resources include some gold found on the Leech River and in other parts, but by far the most important product of this class is the excellent coal already mentioned in our general account of the Dominion. The chief mines are at Nanaimo, 70 miles north of Victoria, at the terminus of a railway running thither from the capital. This busy place has a population of over 5000, and the output of all the mines in 1896 was 846,235 tons, of the value of 2,327,000 dollars. There are large

exports of timber to Australia and China, and this trade is now one of rapid growth. *Victoria*, the capital, is beautifully situated near the south-eastern extremity of the island, with a population of about 24,000. It has some characteristics of an American city, with types of character resembling those of San Francisco, a large Chinese element, and U.S. money in general use. It is described by some as the most charming little city in America for its views of glorious mountain ranges, its atmosphere and climate, boating and bathing, country drives past cottages embowered in roses and honeysuckle, and, for the epicure, producing at the "Driard House" Hotel the best dinner served on the Pacific coast north of San Francisco. This "garden and sanitarium of the Pacific slope" lies on low ever-verdant hills overlooking the bay. Nothing can be more delightful than the month of May in "the freshness of the air, the warble of birds, the clearness of the sky, the profusion and fragrance of wild roses, the hues of buttercups and daisies, the islets and inlets, with distant snow-peaks bursting on the view as the visitor ascends some adjacent height". In autumn the trees are loaded with apples and pears, grapes and plums. The chief edifices include the government buildings, a cathedral, hospitals, and a public library, and the city has the advantages of electric lighting and trams, and a fine public park on Beacon Hill. The Chinese are most useful in the duties of chambermaids and cooks, nurses and laundresses, gardeners and grooms; in the sawing of wood, running of errands, and countless other kinds of work, and have earned the esteem of all unprejudiced persons by honesty, industry, and sobriety which rarely fail. The suburb, *Esquimalt*, has a beautiful landlocked harbour, with excellent anchorage, and possesses a great graving-dock, constructed by the Imperial and Canadian governments at great cost, for the repairing and fitting-out of ships of war on the Pacific station. This is the head-quarters of our fleet in these waters, and is a fortified coaling-place, connected by railway, as mentioned above, with the mines at Nanaimo. In 1895, the imports of Victoria amounted to a value of nearly ½ million sterling, with exports worth over £630,000, the chief trade being carried on with Great Britain and the United States. The revenue in 1895 was nearly £180,000, with an expenditure of about double that amount, and a debt of nearly £700,000. Provincial rule is administered, on the system of

"responsible government", by a Lieutenant-Governor and a Legislative Assembly. This body, composed of 33 members, is elected for a four-years term, on a franchise giving a vote to every male adult after twelve months' residence in the province.

Between Vancouver Island and the mainland are numerous islands, forming a peculiar and interesting feature of the coast in this part of the Dominion. They are very mountainous, intersected by lovely fertile vales, and studded with lakes. One of the largest, best known, and longest settled is Salt Spring Island, about 20 miles in length and from 2 to 8 wide, divided by mountains into three separate districts or settlements, connected among themselves inland merely by trails, but accessible from the sea, and having steamboat traffic with Victoria. The usual English crops grow abundantly in these valleys, and our fruits reach almost unrivalled excellence in apples, pears, cherries, plums, raspberries, currants, and strawberries unsurpassed for size, profusion, and flavour. The Douglas pine, cypress, and maple abound, and the open country feeds cattle and sheep. Venison from the plentiful deer forms a large part of the settlers' fare, the little bays have plenty of fish, and the lakelets furnish many trout. The Queen Charlotte group, lying north of Vancouver Island, have a total area of 5100 sq. miles, the two chief islands, Graham and Moresby, being 160 miles long, with an extreme breadth of nearly 70. The climate is very moist, but healthy; the people, about 2000 Indians, are chiefly engaged in fishing.

CHAPTER X.

NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR.

Extent and population of NEWFOUNDLAND—Her "historic misfortunes"—Geographical features of the coast—Interior of the island—Rivers and lakes—Products—Fauna—Minerals—Climate—The cod, seal, and other fisheries—Recent development of agriculture—Mining—Commercial statistics—St. John's city—Its disastrous fires—Riot of 1860—Industries—Harbour Grace, &c.—The Newfoundland dog—Administration of the island—Education—The portion of LABRADOR politically connected with Newfoundland.

Newfoundland, the oldest of British colonies, ranks tenth in size among all the islands of the world. Lying at the entrance

of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46½° and 51½° north latitude, and 52½° and 59½° west longitude, and separated from Labrador, on the north, by the Strait of Belle Isle, 11 miles in width, the country has an area of 40,200 square miles, being thus about one-fifth less than England. An irregular equilateral triangle in shape, with a long peninsula extending to the north, the island has an extreme length of nearly 400 miles from south-east to north, and a breadth of over 300 miles at the base, between Cape Ray at the south-western angle, and Cape Race on the south-east. It is the nearest to the British Isles of all parts of America, being distant only 1640 miles, or less than three days' steaming for the swiftest Atlantic liners, from the south-west coast of Ireland. In 1891, the population, including a few thousands in Labrador, numbered 202,000, of whom about 195,500 were natives of Newfoundland, and a few hundreds were Indians, chiefly Micmacs from Nova Scotia and Cape Breton Island. In religious faith, about 73,000 are Roman Catholics, mainly of Irish origin, under the spiritual rule of two bishops (St. John's and Harbour Grace) and a "Prefect Apostolic"; about 70,000 are adherents of the Anglican Church, ruled by the Bishop of Newfoundland; and over 53,000 are Methodists; with about 1500 Presbyterians, and nearly 5000 of other denominations.

The history of the country up to the beginning of the nineteenth century having been given in a former part of this work, we may note that Newfoundland has, compared with most of our other colonies, but a dull and sombre record during the past hundred years. In the spring of 1895 she was suffering most severely from a financial crisis due partly to a fall, in the European markets, in the price of products from her fisheries, representing nine-tenths of the wealth and exports of the colony. She has relied, almost exclusively, upon a single industry, a collapse of which means temporary ruin. She has obstinately declined to abandon her isolated political position by entering the Dominion of Canada, and she has reaped the disastrous consequences of devotion to one pursuit, depressed by severe French competition which is sustained by bounties, and of a loss of credit due to over-trading and, in part, to the exposure, in her Supreme Court, of bribery and corruption on a large scale with public moneys. Newfoundland's "historic misfortunes", as a British statesman has called

them, began with the insane arrangements of the Treaty of Utrecht, assigning rights to the French fishermen which have greatly hampered the development of mineral and agricultural resources on one of the best parts of the coast. It became an axiom with British political and commercial authorities that the island was good for nothing but fisheries and as a nursery-ground for British seamen. The government on the spot strongly discouraged agricultural settlement by only granting land in small plots, at high rents, on leases renewable only on payment of heavy fines. Large fortunes were, indeed, made in the fisheries, but next to nothing was spent in the country or on its improvement by the acquirers of this wealth, and the capitalists, both local and absentee, eager to retain labour in their own special pursuit, represented the island as of barren soil, and maligned the climate in a way that produced an impression in the British Isles which is even now largely prevalent. The backward condition of all affairs, apart from fish, is shown by the facts that, until 1805, there was no post-office, and, until 1806, no newspaper. Only in 1813 were grants of land, on the above hard conditions, made at all. There was no representative government until 1832, and it was not until 1855 that responsible government was conceded. A few years later, a geological survey led to mining as a new source of profit. In 1873 direct steam communication with England and America was established.

The island, particularly on the south and east, where it is exposed to the full force of Atlantic waves, has its rocky coast, with cliffs from 200 to 300 feet in height, broken by splendid bays that penetrate for many miles. On the south-east, the peninsula of Avalon is formed by Trinity Bay, on the north, and the great Placentia Bay, on the south, running inland so as to leave an isthmus but three miles across. East of Trinity Bay is the fine Conception Bay. On the south coast, Burin peninsula is formed by Placentia Bay, to the east, and the deep-running Fortune Bay to the west. The harbour of Burin is the best of all Newfoundland's many excellent havens, being landlocked by cliffs 200 feet in height, and the neighbouring coast scenery is very fine, dominated by the tower of Burin lighthouse from a point 430 feet above sea-level. On the east coast, to the north of Trinity Bay, comes Bonavista Bay, nearly 40 miles wide across the mouth, and running

far inland, with many inlets, whose shores are dotted with fishing hamlets. Many miles to the north again, after passing Fogo Island and a whole archipelago of picturesque islets, we come to the grand Notre Dame Bay, with an entrance at least 40 miles in width, between which and Cape Bauld, the northern extremity of Newfoundland, are the deep-running White Bay and some minor indentations. On the south coast, between Fortune Bay and Cape Ray, are Hermitage Bay and countless smaller inlets. On the west coast, bounding the Gulf of St. Lawrence, St. George's Bay runs many miles inland, with the Bay of Islands to the north of the peninsula which it helps to form. The usual conception of the Newfoundland shores is, we believe, a dreary spectacle of rock-bound coast shrouded, for most of the year, in fog. The fact is very different from this prejudiced view. At many parts of the more than 2000 miles of coast-line the voyager sees dark green forests coming down to the water's edge, from the summit of lofty hills, with picturesque effect, and he who penetrates the depths of the bays enjoys the sight of countless islands on a vast expanse of water, and of hilly shores clothed in perpetual green. Here and there, a wall of cliff is broken by a little cove, at the head of which, beyond the fishing-boats at anchor, a brown trout-brook tumbles in from the heights, with the fishermen's cottages clustering round in a scene of ideal seclusion. On the Avalon coast, a rare phenomenon is presented, with the name of the "Spout", in a deep sea-cavern with a vaulted roof, through a hole in which, in a stormy time at high tides, the surge is hurled in a fountain visible for miles around. The northern shore is low and grassy, and is a great resort of seals. In the Strait of Belle Isle, 80 miles long by 12 in width, dividing Newfoundland from Labrador, a desolate scene meets the voyager's eye on the islets and coasts, with great fleets of icebergs dragging slowly, at times, along the waters. The great rock, 9 miles long by 3 in breadth, ironically styled "Belle Isle" by French discoverers, lies at the eastern entrance to the strait. At only one point can a landing be made, and it is here that, twice in the year, the lonely lighthouse-keeper receives his supplies of stores. On this desolate isle not a bush is found, and the man has vainly tried to form a garden-ground with soil from the mainland, only to have it swept away by the violent winds.

It is only within recent years that the interior has been fully explored, to the refutation of calumnies concerning "a dreary wilderness", spread by the fishing interest. The Exploits River, over 150 miles long, has its rise in a lake on the south-west, and flows in a north-easterly course, having its "Grand Falls", 145 feet in height, and forming several large lakes, into Notre Dame Bay. The Gander, to the east of the Exploits, running in the same direction, and the Humber, 150 miles long, discharging into the Bay of Islands, on the west coast, are the other chief rivers. The number of lakes is so great, and the extent of some so large, as to occupy a really considerable proportion of the whole surface of the island. Grand Lake or Pond, near the western coast, is 56 miles long, with an area of nearly 200 square miles, and it contains an island 22 miles in length and 5 in breadth. Around the heads of the bays are large tracts of excellent land, with much fine timber, and most suitable for tillage and grass-farming. The interior of the country is an undulating plateau, crossed at various places by ranges of low hills, and with a number of isolated sharply-peaked summits rising abruptly from the level to the height, in one instance, of nearly 1800 feet. Along much of the west coast is a continuous range of hills, of which Mt. Erskine attains 2000 feet. The river-valleys and the west coast have the best soil and the finest timber, the latter including pine and spruce, birch, juniper, and larch, affording ample materials for the lumber trade which has recently been started in the pine-forests of the north. There is a great abundance of evergreen shrubs, flowering plants and ferns, wild clover and grasses, and garden vegetables of all kinds, with strawberries, gooseberries, raspberries, and currants, are successfully grown. The fauna include noble herds of reindeer or caribou; black bears and wolves; foxes black and silver and red and gray; otters and beavers; weasels and hares, rats and mice, musquashes or musk-rats. Among the 300 species of birds, mostly migratory, are the eagle and hawk, owl, woodpecker, swallow, kingfisher, golden plover, fly-catchers and thrushes, ravens and jays, finches and many birds of song. The sportsman may rejoice in the abundance of ptarmigan, grouse, wild ducks and geese, curlew, snipe and other fowl, and the lakes swarm with splendid trout for the fisherman's fly. The marine birds are in countless numbers, once including the great auk whose eggs now

command prices so enormous from enthusiasts richer in money than in brains. There are no venomous reptiles, frogs, or toads. The marine creatures include the cephalopod known as the calamary or common squid, a mollusc 6 or 7 inches in length, most valuable as bait for the cod-fishery. The mineral resources of the island, in addition to the copper ore found round Notre Dame Bay, include lead, coal, marbles of many hues, limestone, roofing slate, building stone, gypsum, and granite of the finest quality.

We shall now deal with the climate, and strive to redeem its character from past reproach. That it is generally healthy is proved by the robust appearance of the people. The fog seen by the voyager does not go inland, but generally lies off the coast. The cold effect of the Arctic current, with its ice-fields and icebergs, is modified by the Gulf Stream which causes the fogs. In winter, generally lasting from the beginning of December to the middle of April, there are no extremes of cold like those occurring in Canada and the United States. The thermometer rarely falls below zero, and the frost, with snow covering the ground, does not usually penetrate the soil for more than a few inches. With scarcely any spring, as we understand the season, the weather, early in May, rushes into a summer that brings wonderful rapidity of vegetation. Here again, there is not the great heat of Canada and the States, the thermometer rarely rising much above 80 degrees Fahrenheit. The average annual rainfall is 51 inches, evenly spread over the year. The autumn, prolonged into November, has its beautiful "Indian summer", and the winter, once more, has charming effects in the "silver thaw", or congelation of rain as it descends, depositing a layer of ice on the branches and twigs of trees, with the dazzling beauty of a chandelier of crystals lighted up by the sun's rays; and in the magnificence of the Aurora Borealis, transcending that of Arctic regions. Thunder-storms are of rare occurrence, and hurricanes are unknown.

The chief industry is fishing, in which the census of 1891 showed that nearly 55,000 people were engaged as catchers or curers, and the chief product in this line is, as all the world knows, the invaluable cod. No sign of exhaustion, after the lapse of above three centuries of continuous catching, has yet appeared in this main element of wealth for the people of Newfoundland. The sources of supply are three—the shores of Newfoundland,

the coast of Labrador, and the "Banks" to the south of Newfoundland, being submarine plateaus extending for 600 miles in length and 200 in breadth, with a depth of water above them varying from 100 to 600 feet. The shore fishery off the island is prosecuted by those who are unable from various causes to resort to the more distant waters, or who combine tillage with the other occupation. The thousand miles of fishing on the Labrador coast are visited by Newfoundlanders, between June and October, to the number of about 30,000, manning from 1200 to 1500 vessels. The whole annual value of the catch exceeds a million sterling, the home consumption amounting to about 8 millions of fish, while nearly 30 millions are exported. The bait used, in successive parts of the season, is a small fish called caplin; the small squid or cuttle-fish; and the herring. Every part of the cod has its use for man. Besides the consumption as most palatable and nutritious food, the bones and offal make excellent manure. The refined oil has great medicinal value for delicate persons, and the common oil is used for tanning. The bladder produces the substance called isinglass, and the roe is exported to France as bait for catching sardines. In addition to the single hook and line, nets, seines, trawl-lines, and cod-traps are employed in catching this treasure of the deep. The seal-fishery, which might more properly be called "seal-hunting", is next in importance, being followed in the spring by those who, in summer, are engaged in the cod-fishery. The vessels now used are chiefly steamers of between 300 and 600 tons, stoutly constructed to resist the impact of ice, and each costing from £12,000 to £20,000. The young seals, born on the ice before the end of February, are ready for the hunters at about six weeks of age, and, being brought down on floating fields of ice by the Arctic current from Baffin and Hudson Bays, they are killed by a blow on the nose with a club. The skin, with the fat adhering, is taken from the carcass, which is left on the ice. On return to shore, the oil is extracted from the fat, and sold for lubricating and other purposes, while the skins, to the number of between a quarter and half a million according to the success of the season, are salted down and exported to the British Isles and elsewhere for conversion into leather. We must observe that the animals we are now mentioning are not the fur-seals, but the harp-seal and other varieties covered by hair instead of fur.

The whole annual value, in skins and oil, may amount to half a million sterling in a good year. The herring-fishery, carried on, in the autumn and winter, by the same men as are engaged with seals and cod, has an annual value of over £100,000, the Labrador fish being specially valuable for their size and nutritious character. The salmon of the Newfoundland coasts, and the very fine fish of the same class taken off Labrador, are caught in June and July, chiefly for the American market. The canning of lobsters, a new industry since 1880, produces an annual return of over £100,000. The export of fish to the Catholic countries Brazil, Portugal, Italy, and Spain, had a value, in 1895, of over three million dollars.

The number of persons engaged in the tillage of the soil, in 1891, was returned at "1547 farmers", cultivating about 65,000 acres of land. Recent research having shown that about 5 millions of acres well fitted for cultivation exist, encouragement to agriculture has been given which has brought a considerable development of this industry. Fifty years ago, the only crops raised in Newfoundland were oats and hay. Of late years, a large import of grain, vegetable, and garden seeds has led to the growth of carrots and turnips, barley and clover, and, better still, to a production of potatoes which has reached the annual amount of 1 million bushels. The mineral resources, except in copper and nickel, have not been much developed. The chief seat of mining in these ores is around the coast of Notre Dame Bay. The value of the export, up to 1879, had reached about 1 million sterling since the opening of the first copper-mine in 1864. By the census of 1891, nearly 1300 miners were at work. The country is provided with admirable roads around the coast, and St. John's is connected with Harbour Grace (84 miles distant), and with Placentia, by railways. A line northward to Exploits, in the copper-mining district, and one to the west of the island have been constructed in recent years. Above 1300 miles of internal telegraph are open, and cables for Europe start from the east coast (Heart's Content), and to the American mainland from Placentia. There is a fortnightly mail-service, except in February, March, and April, to Liverpool, Halifax, New York, Montreal, and Prince Edward Island, and bi-weekly mails to the American mainland from April to December. Steamers run regularly to Halifax and round Newfoundland, and to Labrador

during the summer. The inland postage is 3 cents or about 1½*d.* for letters up to 1 oz., and 5 cents for same weight to Europe and the States. The exports, in 1895, had a value of about 6¼ million dollars or 1¼ million sterling, of which fish (chiefly cod) made up £640,000; cod and seal oil £135,000; lobsters £84,000, sealskins £76,000, and copper ore and iron pyrites, £71,000. The imports, chiefly of flour, textile goods, hardware, cordage, meat, molasses, salt, coal, and groceries, were worth over £1,244,000. The revenue, mainly from customs-duties, was in 1895 about £325,000, with an expenditure of about £281,000. The public debt was then about 2¾ millions.

The towns of Newfoundland are confined to the coast-line, a large part of the population being found in the chief commercial district, the south-eastern peninsula called Avalon. On the east coast of Avalon lies the capital, *St. John's,* with a population of about 30,000. The harbour, for its size, is one of the best in the world, being perfectly landlocked, with 15 fathoms of water in the centre, and from 5 to 10 fathoms elsewhere. It is a mile and a half in length, and half a mile broad, and is entered by a passage called the Narrows, half a mile long and from 1400 feet at the entrance to 600 feet in width, cleft in the sea-wall of the island between grand rugged hills from 600 to 700 feet in height. A graving-dock, constructed in 1884, 600 feet long, 132 feet wide, and 26 feet deep, can receive the largest ocean-steamers. Nearer to Europe than any other port of North America, St. John's is but 1730 miles from Cork. The history of the place in the nineteenth century is one of progress diversified by disastrous fires, largely due to wood-construction. Severe loss was thus caused in 1816 and 1817. In 1846, two-thirds of the city was destroyed, and was then rebuilt on an improved plan. The worst of these events occurred on July 8th, 1892, when a conflagration swept away fully one-half of the buildings, including the Anglican cathedral, a very substantial unfinished Gothic structure of great beauty, designed by Sir Gilbert Scott, with St. Andrew's Presbyterian Church, and the massive warehouses of Water Street. About 11,000 people were thus left homeless, and property worth nearly three millions sterling was destroyed. Contributions were freely made from Canada, the British Isles, and the United States, and the people set to work with great energy to rebuild the place in an

improved fashion. Religious bigotry has from time to time caused disturbances in the island, and in 1860 a serious riot took place at St. John's, when a mob of Irish Catholics took possession of the town and began to pillage the stores. There is no Imperial garrison, and the "Royal Newfoundland Companies" of militia, posted before the Market-House, after enduring for hours the verbal insults of the rioters, at last, as night fell on the scene, replied with a destructive volley to shots that were fired from the mob. The tumult ended with the ringing of the bells at the Roman Catholic cathedral, whither the rioters flocked and were induced by the bishop to keep the peace under threat of a general excommunication. The Parliament Building is a massive stone edifice, with a fine Doric portico, and there is the usual array of public institutions. There is an excellent supply of water from lakes about 5 miles away, and the city is furnished with gas and electric-lighting in the streets and factories, warehouses and shops. On Signal Hill, whose crest is covered with fine soft grass, lies a deep lake 360 feet above the sea, and a fine view is thence obtained of the city and harbour below. The chief trade, as we may suppose, is in fish and fish-products, the manufactures including the refining of seal-oil, along with tanneries, boot and shoe factories, soap-works, iron-foundries, candle-works, a furniture-factory, biscuit-making, tobacco-making from American leaf, and a woollen-mill. The merchants do a large trade in imported goods which they supply to the "out-harbours", as the other towns are called. For about a month in summer the city is thronged with people from the north and west coasts, selling the product of their fisheries, and purchasing stores for winter-use. Both British and United States currency is employed, and much of the trade is carried on by barter. The Roman Catholic cathedral, crowning the ridge which overlooks the city and harbour, is a huge stone structure with two towers, a very long cloister, and no aisles; much of the material was brought from Ireland, at the cost of the Irish Catholics who form a large majority of the citizens.

Harbour Grace, on the west side of Conception Bay, is the second town in importance, with a population of about 7000, a Catholic bishop's see, a large harbour, and considerable trade. Eight miles north lies *Carbonière* (or, *Carbonear*) a fishing-centre with 4000 people. *Trinity*, on the bay of that name, is a county-

town of about 2000 inhabitants, 115 miles from St. John's. Northwards again, we come to *Bona Vista* (pop. 3600) on the bay so called, a place of growing commerce. On approaching Notre Dame Bay, the voyager reaches *Twillingate*, a town of about 3500 people, capital of the northern division of Newfoundland, and built on two islands joined by a bridge. The neighbourhood is famous for the choicest specimens of the Newfoundland dogs, now rare and costly in the pure black colour with a white cross on the breast. These powerful animals are still used for the conveyance, on sledges over snowy forest-tracks, of the monthly mail in some of the wilder regions of the island.

The administration of affairs, established in its present form in 1855, is in the hands of a Governor appointed by the Crown, with a responsible Executive Council or Ministry of 6 members (not to exceed seven), a Legislative Council of 16 nominated members, and a House of Assembly of 36 representatives, elected by ballot under manhood suffrage, with the proviso that voters must be British subjects, of full legal age, and resident for at least two years in the colony. The members of the Legislative Council and the Assembly are paid for their expenses during a three-months' session. St. John's has a municipal council of seven members, two appointed by the government, and five elected by the city-ratepayers. Justice is administered by a Supreme Court of Judicature, re-constituted in 1824, with a Chief Justice and two assistant-judges, having civil and criminal jurisdiction over the whole island and the colony's Labrador territory. The educational system is of the separate or denominational character, except in the grammar-school at Harbour Grace, with payment of fees, and grants in aid of secondary schools. Primary education, based upon an Act of 1887, is centrally administered by three superintendents—Roman Catholic, Anglican, and Methodist—with local management by appointed boards. The elementary schools receive aid from the public funds in proportion to their numbers. In 1894, the total number of aided schools was 605, with over 35,500 pupils, and government-grants amounting to nearly £30,000.

The portion of *Labrador* politically connected with Newfoundland since 1876 is on the east side of that vast peninsula, and has an estimated area of 120,000 sq. miles. The permanent inhabitants of this bleak region may number 4000, Eskimo (Esquimaux), half-

breeds, and a few pure whites, chiefly engaged in fishing and trapping. The Atlantic coast is bordered by cliffs from 1000 to 4000 feet in height, devoid of vegetation, indented by narrow fiords, and fringed by chains of rocky islands. The interior, little explored, is chiefly a table-land about 2000 feet above sea-level, with extensive forests of fir, and birch and other hardy trees; rivers rich in white-fish and salmon, many lakes, and fauna including bears and wolves, caribou or reindeer, martens, foxes, beavers, otters, and lynxes. The coast-fisheries have been already mentioned. The chief port is *Battle Harbour*, on the Strait of Belle Isle, the other villages being Moravian Mission stations at Hopedale, Hebron, Okkak, and Nain. This work was begun in 1770; the Anglican Church now has one or two posts of the same class. There is no regular administration; the collector of customs, who is also a magistrate, visits the country every summer in a revenue-cruiser. A nine-months' winter, dry and frosty, forbids the ripening of corn, but potatoes and a few other vegetables can be grown during the short hot summer, when mosquitoes and black flies make life burdensome to the people.

END OF VOL. V.